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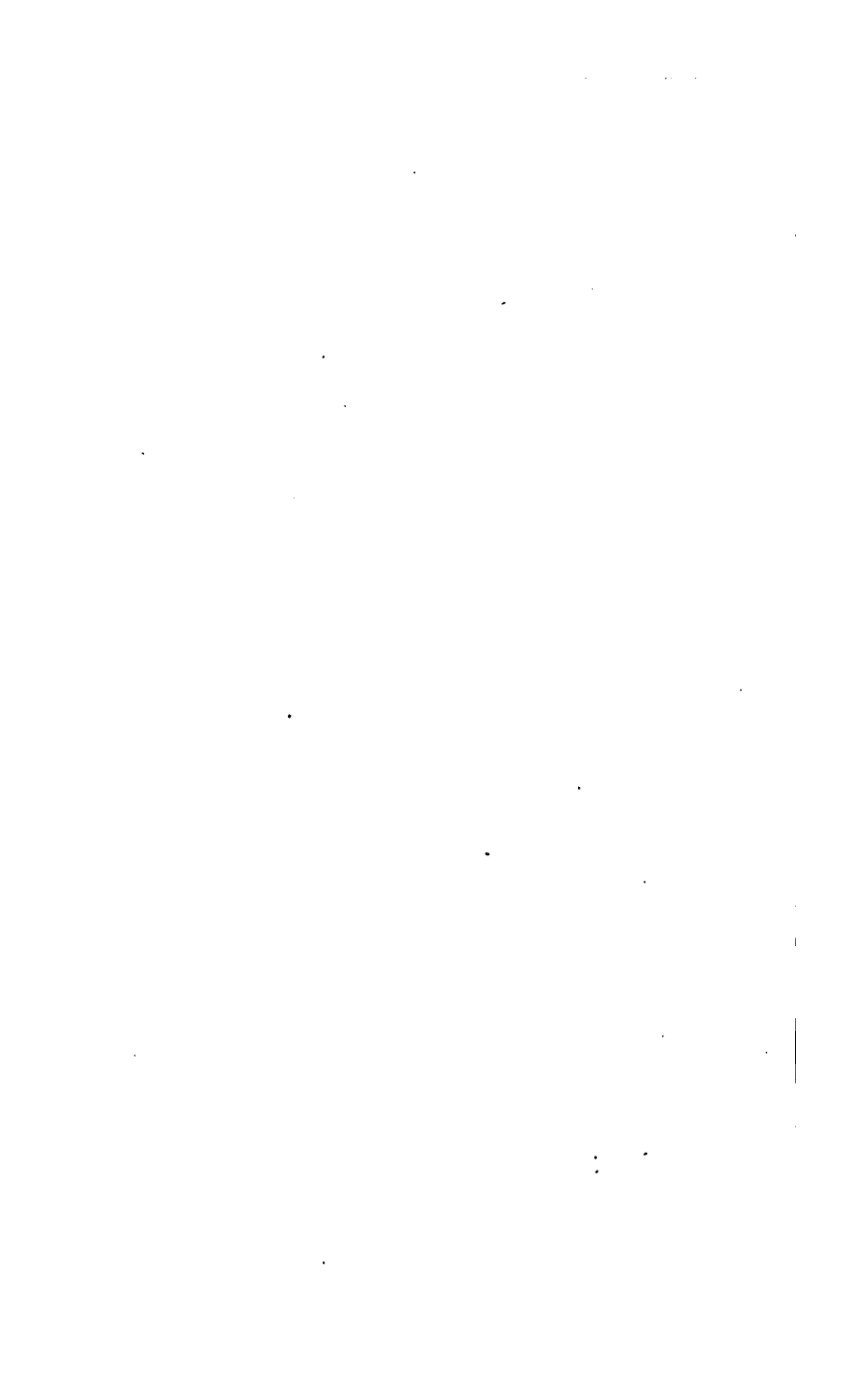
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HENRY'S

ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

MANUAL FOR BEGINNERS.

BY THE LATE REV.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

MR. ARNOLD'S 'English Grammar for Classical Schools' was drawn up with an especial view to the needs of pupils engaged in the study of the ancient languages. That it met a felt want of our schools is sufficiently proved by the fact that, published in 1838, it is now in its Fifth Edition.

The present work is intended for more general use as a manual of grammatical instruction for beginners. The Lessons and Exercises are formed upon a method calculated to lead them by sure and easy steps to a correct and intelligent use of the mother-tongue.

At the same time, the habit of reflecting upon the facts, and of analyzing the construction, of their own language, will very greatly facilitate the acquisition of other languages, either ancient or modern.

It is proper to mention that much the greater

part of this work was in print at the time of the Author's decease. The part added for completion begins at Lesson 68. The 'Companion' was also prepared by Mr. Arnold, except the notes on the 'Remarkable Verbs.'

. In page 139, paragraph 627, *for* 'verb' *read* 'substantive.'

A statement in page 172, paragraph 740, is corrected by a more qualified remark added to paragraph 780 in page 186.

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HENRY'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

&c.

Lesson 1.—The Letters.

- a) Can you sound *A* by itself? [Yes.] 1
b) Can you sound *B* by itself?
c) Sound *B-e*.
d) Is not this *the same sound* that you gave me,
when I told you to pronounce *B*? [Yes.]

Then when you *thought* you pronounced *B*, you 2
really pronounced *B-e*.

Try whether you can in any way *puff* out a *B* 3
without *any sound* of *E* with it.

You cannot *possibly* succeed. Now I will tell 4
you what letters you *can* pronounce by themselves.
Try them, as fast as I name them: and say 'yes'
or 'no.'

A	O
E	U
I	

☞ These five letters which I can pronounce 5
without *sounding any other letter* with them, are
called *vowels*.

Remember then that 6
a, e, i, o, u, are *vowels*¹.

Now you will find that each of the other letters 7
requires *one* of these *vowels* to be sounded with it.

¹ *Vowel* has been altered from *vocal*, which comes from *vocalis*,
a Latin word, that means *sounding*.

- 8 The greater number of letters take the sound of a vowel *after them*, when we pronounce their *names*.
- 9 What *vowel* do you sound after
- | | |
|----|----|
| B? | K? |
| C? | P? |
| D? | T? |
| G? | V? |
| J? | |
- 10 What *vowel* do you sound before
- | | | |
|----|----|----|
| F? | N? | X? |
| L? | R? | |
| M? | S? | |
- 11 Some *names* are very strange: thus,
H is pronounced *aitch*.
Y „ *wy* or *wi*.
- 12 Those letters which cannot be sounded *by themselves*, are called *consonants*¹.
- 13 We have seen that *f* is pronounced *ef*; but when I pronounce '*fate*,' I do not pronounce it *ef-ate*. The *name*, therefore, does not give the sound which the letter always has, but the sound it has with the letter that goes with it to *spell its name*.
- 14 *Broil: foul: Eu-rope.*
Observe that in these words *two vowels* come together: *oi, ou, eu*.
- 15 ➡ Two vowels coming together form a *diphthong*, when the two sounds are blended into one, so that neither of them is quite lost.
[The only proper diphthongs in our language are *eu, oi, ou*; but two vowels are often used to mark a *simple vowel sound*.]
- 16 '*A yeoman* : ' '*a yew tree* : ' y is here a *consonant*.
' *Coy* : ' '*buy* : ' y is here a *vowel*.

¹ From 'con-sonare,' to *sound with* (something else).

And, in general, *y* is a *consonant*, when it stands (16) at the beginning of a word or syllable, but a *vowel* in other positions.

'*Willow*:' 'wince:' 'war:' *w* is here a *conso-* 17
nant.

'*Owl*:' *w* is here a *vowel*.

And, in general, *w* after a vowel in *the same syllable*, is also a mere vowel.

[(a) The different parts of the mouth, principally the *palate*, the *tongue*, and the *lips*, are called the *organs* (that is, the instruments) of speech.

(b) The vowel sounds are formed by the voice passing through the cavity of the mouth more or less enlarged in different directions. But in sounding a consonant there is always some *pressing of the organs*.]

Vowels pronounced by themselves, or with con- 18
sonants, form *syllables*: *syllables* by themselves, or with other syllables, form *words*: and *words* are used as signs of *notions*.

Exercise 1.

- [1. Write down *two* consonants and *three* vowels.
2. Write down *four* words beginning with a consonant, and *two* beginning with a vowel.
3. Write down *six* words containing each a *diphthong*.]

Lesson 2.—A Sentence.

When I see the steam coming violently out of 19
the spout of a kettle, I think to myself: "*the water boils*."

When I try to recollect what sound particular animals make, I remember, that "*the dog barks*;" "*the sheep bleats*;" "*the horse neighs*;" "*the lion roars*;" and so on.

Can any body see your thoughts? [No.]

How can you make any body *know* what you are thinking?

- 20 (→ A thought expressed in words is called a *sentence*.

Exercise 2.

- 21 [Fill up each of the blanks left in the following Exercise by a *single word*, expressing something that the 'thing' in question sometimes *does*.]

The snow ——. The ice ——. The knife ——.
 The boy ——. The sun ——. The bird ——.
 The bell ——. The worm ——. The flower ——.
 The hog ——. The dove ——. The magpie ——.
 The cock ——.

Lesson 3.

- 22 When you say "*the snow falls*," *whom* or *what* are you speaking about? [*Snow*.]

When you say "*the dog barks*," *whom* or *what* are you speaking about?

When you say "*the boy runs*," *whom* or *what* are you speaking about?

- 23 The husbandman labours.

The hare runs.

The man snores.

The leaf fades.

The insect hums.

The trumpet sounds.

The thunder rattles.

The pig squeaks.

The wall totters.

About *whom* or *what* have you said something?

[This question is to be asked after each of the sentences on the left hand.]

Exercise 3.

- 24 [Write down before each of the following words the *name* of some *person*, *animal*, or *thing*, that can be supposed to *do* what is said. You may put 'a' or 'the,' or 'my,' 'your,' 'his,' before it.]

— snores. — snorts. — fidgets. —
 pricks. — cuts. — cries. — smiles.
 — shudders. — falls. — bawls. —

crawls. — calls. — leaps. — creeps. (24)
 — smarts. — burns. — turns. —
 blushes. — trembles. — aches.

Exercise 4.

[Write down the names of all the *things, persons, or animals*, 25
 (1) in this room ; (2) in a school-room ; (3) in a kitchen ; (4) in
 a river ; (5) in a field.]

Lesson 4.

What is a *soldier* the name of? [A person.] 26

What is a *knife* the name of? [A thing.]

What is a *horse* the name of? [An animal.]

What is a *rose* the name of? [A flower.]

☞ In Grammar we call all these, THINGS. 27

The names of all *things* are called *substantives* ;
 that is, *things* that *subsist*, or have a *substance*.

A *substantive*, therefore, is a '*thing-word*.'

Exercise 5.

[Find out, and write down, all the *substantives* (or "*thing-words*") in the following *sentences*.] 28

The clock strikes. My back aches. My finger
 smarts. The tax presses heavily. The storm will
 sink the vessel. The money disappears. The
 rain falls. The man dies. The sword cuts. The
 surgeon cut my arm off. The horse drew the cart
 from the farm to the farm-house. The dog is in
 his kennel. The house is not so old as the barn.

Lesson 5.

When I say "*my head aches*," what do I say 29
 about my head? [That *it aches*.]

When I say "*the play begins*," what do I say
 about the play?

- (29) When I say "*the artillery roars*," what do I say about the artillery?

"*The boy runs*:" what does the boy *do*? [He runs.]

"*The girl smiles*:" what does the girl *do*?

"*The man laughs*:" what does the man *do*?

"*The sword cuts*:" what does the sword *do*?

"*The pin pricks*:" what does the pin *do*?

- 30 Words that express what things *do*, are called *verbs*.

- 31 You can always put '*to*' before a verb, when you think or speak of the verb itself, without mentioning the particular *thing* that *does* what the verb means.

Exercise 6.

[Write down *ten verbs*, beginning with *to leap*.

Write down *ten substantives* (27).]

Lesson 6.

- 32 What is a substantive? [A thing-word; or, the name of a *thing* (27).]

- 33 What sort of word is apple? garden? to run? man? dog? to fight? to bark? a bruise? a crow? a woman? a fire? a nag? to call?

- 34 When I say "*a red rose*," what do I say the rose is? [Red.]

When I say "*a tall man*," what do I say the man is?

When I say "*a round ball*," what do I say the ball is?

When I say "*a good boy*," what do I say the boy is?

- 35 Since there are *red* roses, some roses have the *property* of being *red*.

Since there are tall men, some men have the (35)
property of being — what? [Tall.]

Since there are round balls, some balls have the
property of being — what? [Round.]

Since there are good boys, some boys have the
property of being — what? [Good.]

Exercise 7.

[Write down before each of the following substantives a word 36
that will denote a *property* belonging to it ; that is, will describe
what *kind* of thing it is ¹.]

A — horse. A — sheep. A — boy.
A — rap. A — apple. A — woman. A
— bed. A — wound. A — person. A
— punishment. A — heap. A — nag.
A — dog. A — garden. A — crow. A
— fortune. A — time. A — nose. A
— fire. A — bruise.

Lesson 7.

A word that names the property of things is 37
called an *adjective*.

Thus, *red, round, tall, hot, big, little* are called
ad'-jectives.

If you want to tell me, that a ball has the *pro-* 38
perty of being *round*, how would you express this
thought? [By saying, "a ball *is* round."]

What sort of word is *round*? [An *adjective*.] 39

Can you think of *red* without thinking of some 40
thing that *is* red? [No.]

Is not *red* then the name of a *property* that you
perceive in things? [Yes.]

¹ If any of the words you write down begins with a vowel,
you must, as a general rule, write *an* instead of *a*.

- 41 a) What are *thing-words*, or the *names of things* called? [Substantives (27).]
- 42 b) What are *property-words*, or the names of properties that we perceive in things called? [Adjectives (37).]
- 43 What are *doing-words*, or words that denote *doing* something, called? [Verbs (30).]
- 44 a) Before a *substantive* you can put *a*, *an*, or *the*.
 b) Before a *verb* you can put *to*.
 c) An adjective can be placed next before some substantive.
 A SHIP (*substantive*).
 To SAIL (*verb*).
 A LARGE ship. LARGE (*adjective*).

Exercise 8.

- 45 a) [Write down an *adjective* (37) after the word 'is,' in the following examples.]

The boy is —. The table is —. The book is —. The apple is —. A sword is —. This painting is —. A flower is —. A tree is —. The stable-door is —.

- b) [Write down a *verb* (30) after each of the following substantives.]

The ship —. A fish —. The bird —. The sun —. Fire —. The boat —. The knife —. A thief —. The boy —.

- c) [Wherever there is a line in the following list of words, write down a *substantive* (27) that will make sense. You may put *a*, *an*, *the*; or *my*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *our*, *their* before it.]

— runs. — killed the pig. — committed an outrage. — baked this loaf. — delivered a lecture. — crossed my path. — is in good health. — died yesterday. — saw me. — fell on him. — broke his leg. — paid the bill.

Lesson 8.

What is a *substantive* [27]? What is an *adjective* [37]? What is a *verb* [30]?

What are *property-words* called [37]? What are *thing-words* called [27]? What are *doing-words* called [30]?

☞ Substantives, adjectives, and verbs are called *parts of speech*.

When I ask '*what part of speech*' a word is, I wish you to tell me, whether it is a substantive, an adjective, or a verb.

Exercise 9.

[What part of speech is each of the words in the following Exercise?

Use a for adjective,
s — substantive,
v — verb.

And write the answer thus: *ground* (s); *wet* (a); (to) *cultivate* (v).]

Soldier; run; barrel; short; oily; field; beat; shoe; lace; stocking; grey; green; lean; puppy; terrify; frighten; table; stumpy; roguish; theatre; house; corn; thick; thicken; painting; penny; splendid; buy; sell; horrible; bedstead; room; dirty; peep.

Lesson 9.

What is a sentence? [A thought expressed in 50 words (20).]

When I say "peeped into the room," do I express any thought? Give a reason why I do or do not. [No; you do not, because you do not say *who* peeped into the room.]

To make a sentence then, besides saying *what* was done, I must say *who* or *what* did it, must I not? [Yes.]

- 53 If I say "the tall boy," is that a sentence?
[No.]

What is wanted to make it a sentence? [To say what he did.]

- 54 Must not every sentence say something about some *person* or *thing*?

- 55 a) The person or thing, about which we say something, is called the *subject*.

b) The thing said about the *subject*, is called the *predicate* or *assertion*.

- 56 When I say, "the lock is rusty," what is the *thing* about which I say something? [The lock.]

What do I say about the lock? [That it is rusty.]

When I say, "the bird sings," what is the *subject* about which I say something?

When I say, "the bird sings," what is the *predicate* or *assertion* made about the *bird*?

Examples.

57	<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
	The dog	is an animal.
	The knife	is sharp.
	The knife	cuts.
	The ship	sails over the sea.

- 58 (→) Every sentence *must* have at least two parts:

1) The **SUBJECT**; that is, the person or thing about which something is said.

2) The **PREDICATE**; that is, what is said about the subject.

Exercise 10.

- 59 a) [Add a **PREDICATE** to the following **SUBJECTS**, which are all substantives, with 'a' or 'the' before them.]

The wind ——. The king ——. The prince

——. The carpet ——. The floor ——. The (59)
 coach ——. The wheel-barrow ——. The wall
 ——. The wood ——. The servant ——. The
 serjeant ——. The carpenter ——. The mason
 ——. The door ——. The moon ——. The
 day ——. The evening ——. The dew ——.
 The hail ——. The thunder ——.

Exercise 11.

b) [Add a SUBJECT to each of the following predicates. Let the 60
 subject be a substantive, with (if necessary) *a, an, or the* before it.]

—— is forbidden by the laws. —— is felled.
 —— is required. —— is scarce. —— sleeps
 soundly. —— was flung. —— fell from the
 tree. —— roars through the sky. —— was
 made. —— is healed. —— is patched at the
 elbows. —— wonders at me. —— believes the
 tale. —— is very improbable. —— is torn.
 —— boxed his brother's ears.

Lesson 10.—The Object, or Accusative Case.

“The farmer tills :” have I a complete sentence 61
 here? [No.]

“The farmer tills the field :” have I a complete
 sentence here? [Yes.]

What is the *object* or *thing* which the farmer
 tills? [The field.]

“The mason builds the wall.” What is the
 object or thing which the mason builds? [The
 wall.]

When I say, “the boy kicks the football,” what
 is the *object* to which the action of kicking is
 done? [The foot-ball.]

In Grammar, the thing to which the action of 62
 the verb is immediately done, is called the *object*.

- 63 The *object* is in English nearly always placed after the verb ; most commonly *immediately* after it.

"I broke the ice." What did I break ?

"I hammered the nail." What did I hammer ?

"I cut the beef." What did I cut ?

Which word is *the object* in "I broke the ice?"

Which word is *the object* in "I hammered the nail?"

Which word is *the object* in "I cut the beef?"

"I saw Henry." *Whom* did I see?

Which word is the *object* in the sentence "I saw Henry?"

In the sentence—

"The farmer ploughs the field," which is the subject? [The farmer.]

What does the farmer do? [Ploughs the field.]

Which is the predicate (58, 2) in the sentence, "the farmer ploughs the field?"

- 64 a) According to the explanation before given (58, 2), the *whole predicate* is "*ploughs the field.*"

b) But in Grammar it is not usual to consider the *object* (62) as part of the *predicate*: so that in the sentence just given '*the farmer*' is the *subject*; '*ploughs*' is the *predicate*; and '*the field*' is the *object*.

Exercise 12.

[Write down an *object* to the following imperfect sentences.]

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Object</i> (with <i>a, the, or, my, your, his, her, &c.</i>).
The ox	draws	
The swallow	builds	
The man	receives	
He	prints	

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Object (with a, the, (64) his, her, &c.</i>
The doctor	wrote	
I	know	
The judge	condemned	
The jury	gave	
The lawyer	defended	
All men	admire	

Lesson 11.—The Article.

When I say, "*I saw a swallow yesterday,*" do 65
I tell you *the particular swallow* that I saw?

When I say, that "*the swallow* that fell down
the chimney is still alive," do I speak of any par-
ticular swallow?

If I were to say, only "*the swallow is still
alive,*" should you understand me, unless you
knew *what* swallow I meant? [No.]

"When Cato killed himself at Utica, he did it
with *a sword.*" Do I speak of the sword *defi-
nitely*, as if I meant a particular sword? [No.]

When Cato killed himself at Utica, he did it
with a sword;—but he received *the* wound made
by *the* sword.

When I here speak of "*the wound,*" do I mean
definitely any particular wound? [Yes, the *par-
ticular* wound made by the sword.]

When I say, "*the wound made by the sword,*"
do I mean (*definitely*) any particular sword? and
if so, what sword? [*The sword with which he
killed himself.*]

Would it be right to say, "*I bought a opera-
glass;*" "*I saw a ant-hill?*" [No.]

What should I say?

- 66 a) $\text{\textcircled{A}}$ *A*, *an*, *the*, are called *articles*.
 b) *A* (or *an*) is called "*the indefinite article*."
 c) *The* is called "*the definite article*."

- 67 Is it right to say { *an envious man?*
an arbitrary decision?
an earthquake?
an octagon? an inch?
an ugly face? [Yes.]

Do the words *envious*, *arbitrary*, *earthquake*, *octagon*, *inch*, *ugly*, begin with a *vowel* or with a *consonant*?

Then, at all events, we write *an* before *some* words that begin with a *vowel*.

- 68 Should I say { *a hermitage, or an hermitage?* [*A*
her'mitage.]
a hereditary fault, or an hereditary
fault? [*An hereditary fault.*]

Is the *h* silent or sounded in *hermitage*? [Sounded.] Is the *h* silent or sounded in *hereditary*? [Sounded.]

Since then '*a hermitage*,' '*an hereditary fault*' are right, we find that *some* words beginning with silent *h* take *a*, some *an*. We must try to make out a rule to determine which take *a*, which *an*.

- 69 On what syllable is *hermitage* accented? [On the first.]

————— *hereditary* accented? [On the second.]

- 70 This observation leads to the following rule:

a) "*A*" is written and pronounced (not "*an*") before a word beginning with *h* sounded (*h* hard), if the accent is on the first syllable.

b) If a word beginning with *h hard*, takes the 71 accent on the second, or any later syllable, then *an* is written, although the *h* is *sounded*.

If the *h* is not sounded, *an* is always written (*an* 72 *honorable mind*).

Should I say "*a useful man*," or "*an useful 73 man*?" [*A useful man.*]

Is *useful* pronounced, as if it began with a vowel? [No.]

What would be the two first letters of *useful*, if I were to write it down as we pronounce it? [Yu.]

"*A*" is written (not "*an*") before words beginning with *u*, when the *u* is sounded like *yu*.

Should I say, "*such an one*," or "*such a one*?" 74 [*Such a one.*]

Is *one* pronounced, as if it began with a vowel, or as if it began with a consonant? [As if it began with a *consonant*.]

With what consonant *does* it begin to the ear? [With *w*.]

Should I say "*he pronounced an eulogy*," or "*a 75 eulogy*?" [*A eulogy.*]

With what letter does *eulogy* begin to the ear? [Y:—*yeulogy*.]

"*A*" is written (not "*an*") before "*one*," and words beginning with *eu*.

Exercise 13.

[Fill up the blanks with *a* or *an*.]

1. The profession of arms is — honorable, 76 useful, and necessary profession. 2. The difference between ninety-nine and — hundred is discernible to every body. 3. That is — historical fact. 4. Is this a fiction or — history? 5. I have — use for it, which I cannot at present ex-

- (76) plain to you. 6. Add — unit to three fives. 7. Philology must go along with philosophy, not as — partner or companion, but as — attendant or handmaid. — handmaid indeed! 8. Is he — American or — European? 9. These are the sole remains of — once flourishing and glorious empire! 10. He has performed — heroic action, with the true simplicity of — hero. 11. Did he receive — university education? 12. What is the large building on the hill? — union work-house. 13. He took — one-sided view of the case.

Lesson 12.—Plural Number of Substantives.

- 77 “I have seen a magpie:” can you say “I have seen *six* magpie?” [No.]—What must you say?
78 What change have you made to state that you have seen six? Try whether the same change will do, if instead of six, you put *two*, *three*, *four*, &c.

I have seen { *two* —
 three —
 four —

- 79 What *is* the change you make in magpie, when you say “*two*,” “*three*,” &c., instead of “*a*?”

Exercise 14.

[Write the following sentences, making the necessary change in the substantive in *italics*, to show that you are speaking of more than one.]

- 80 1. I have three (*horse*). 2. Of all the divine (*at-tribute*) there is none that concerns us more nearly than this of goodness. 3. (*Storm*) and (*tempest*), (*earthquake*) and (*inundation*), lay (*field*) and (*city*) desolate, with all their produce and (*inhabitant*); blighting (*wind*) and pestilential (*vapour*) wither up and destroy; ravenous (*beast*) devour; (*villain*)

assassinate; (*thief*) break through and steal; (80)
 (*tyrant*) oppress; (*disease*) torment; cross (*accident*) vex; old age (*debilitate*); our necessary
 (*employment*) fatigue; our (*want*) interfere; our
 very (*pleasure*) cloy; and man is born to sorrow
 as the (*spark*) fly upward.

*Lesson 13.—Plural Number of Substantives
 continued.*

When a substantive is so altered as to express 81
 that we are speaking of *more than one*, the *form so*
altered is called its plural number; or the sub-
 stantive is said to be in the '*Plural (Number)*.'

The unaltered substantive, being the form we 82
 use when we speak of a *single one* of the things
 in question, is called its singular number; or
 the substantive is said to be in the '*Singular*
(Number).'

Book, *singular* —: *plural* ——— what? 83

A *fly*: singular; four, what? [*flies.*]

A *church*: ——— four, what? [*church-es.*]

A *dish*: ——— four, what? [*dish-es.*]

A *miss*: ——— four, what? [*miss-es.*]

A *box*: ——— four, what? [*box-es.*]

A *potato*: ——— four, what? [*potatoes.*]

One *fly*; two *flies*: here *y* is changed into *ies*. 84
 Let us see whether all substantives that end in *y*
 form their plural in this way.

A *chimney*: singular; six, what? [*chimneys.*]

A *cherry*: ——— six, what? [*cherries.*]

A *valley*: ——— six, what? [*valleys.*]

An *attorney*: ——— six, what? [*attorneys.*]

A *berry*: ——— six, what? [*berries.*]

We see, then, that *some* words ending in *y* make 85

- (85) their plural by adding *s*; others by changing *y* into *ies*.

a) In *chimney, valley, attorney*, (which form their plural by adding *s*,) is the letter before *y* a *vowel* or a *consonant*? [A *vowel*.]

b) In *cherry, berry, fly*, (which form their plural in *ies*,) is the letter before *y* a *vowel* or a *consonant*? [A *consonant*.]

- 86 The *general* rule for forming the *plural* is, to add *s*, or, if required for pronunciation, *es*; *flower, flowers*; *fish, fish-es*.

a) *F, ff, fe*, becomes *ves* (except in words that end in *oof, ief*).

Loaf, loaves.

Staff, staves.

Knife, knives.

(*Hoof, hoofs*; *grief, griefs*.)

b) *Fly, flies*: but *delay, delays*.

Y, when it follows a consonant, becomes *ies*.

(For the more particular rules, see the "*Companion*.")

Exercise 15.

[Put the words in *italics* in the *plural*.]

You will find that the verb often requires a change, which is usually that of dropping a final *s*, or *es*.

- 87 1. Hercules procured for himself more (*temple*) and (*votary*) than the best of his (*fellow*). 2. The (*analogy*) between virtue and criticism. 3. The various (*mythology*) of heathen (*nation*). 4. Critics are a race of men who delight to nibble at the (*superfluity*) and (*excrescency*¹) of (*book*). 5. In the western part of Libya there were (*ass*) with (*horn*). 6. Vast (*army*) have been put to flight by panic (*terroure*). 7. Have you read the (*play*)

¹ Swift. It is more correct now to use *excrescence*.

of Terence? 8. There is much analogy between (87) the (*utensil*) and (*ability*) of (*critic*) and (*taylor*). 9. Before one can be a true critic, it will cost a man all the good (*quality*) of his mind. 10. I hope that the worthy (*member*) of the several (*academy*) abroad, will favourably accept these offers. 11. A bed of (*rush*). 12. A litter of (*fox*). 13. Your common pickle, in use among (*housewife*), is of no further benefit than to preserve dead flesh, and some kind of (*vegetable*). 14. He bears a huge bunch of (*key*) at his girdle. 15. Its (*crudity*) are corrected by yeast or barm. 16. You are a couple of blind, positive, ignorant, wilful (*puppy*).

Lesson 14.—Verbs.—Their Different Classes.

“The child *cries*.” is this a complete sentence? [Yes.]

“The mother kisses.” is this a complete sentence? [No.]

“The mother kisses *her baby*.” is this a complete sentence? [Yes.]

What part of the sentence is “*her baby*?” [The *object*.]

a) Some verbs, of which “to *kiss*” is one, require an *object* to be stated before they can make a complete statement—that is, a sentence.

b) Other verbs, of which “to *cry*” is one, do not require an *object* to be stated.

When a mother kisses her baby, *to whom does 90 the kiss go*? [To the *baby*.]

In grammar, we consider the *action* to *go* or *pass*, as it were, from the *person* acting (called the *agent*) to the *object* acted upon. Such verbs are called “*transitive*,” because the action makes, as it were,

(90) a *transit* (or *passage across*) from the *agent* to the *object*.

91 a) Hence verbs are called "*transitive*," when they require an object to *complete their notion*.

b) Verbs that *do not* require a *completing object* are called "*intransitive*."

92 Say, after each of the following sentences, whether the verb is *transitive* or *intransitive*.

The servant <i>pokes</i> the fire.	To <i>poke</i> is —?	[trans.]
The child <i>laughs</i> .	To <i>laugh</i> is —?	[intr.]
The boy <i>reads</i> the book.	To <i>read</i> is —?	[trans.]
The girl <i>runs</i> .	To <i>run</i> is —?	[intr.]
The bee <i>hums</i> .	To <i>hum</i> is —?	[intr.]
The cat <i>mews</i> .	To <i>mew</i> is —?	[intr.]
The gardener <i>mows</i> the grass.	To <i>mow</i> is —?	[trans.]

93 We shall find that some verbs are both *transitive* and *intransitive*.

The man <i>breaks</i> the ice.	To <i>break</i> is here —?	[trans.]
The ice <i>breaks</i> .	To <i>break</i> is here —?	[intr.]
The girl <i>sings</i> .	To <i>sing</i> is here —?	[intr.]
The girl <i>sings</i> a song.	To <i>sing</i> is here —?	[trans.]
This <i>increases</i> the evil.	To <i>increase</i> is here —?	[trans.]
The evil <i>increases</i> .	To <i>increase</i> is here —?	[intr.]

Exercise 16.

94 [a] Write down an *intransitive verb* after each of the following subjects.]

Subject.

The woman
Fire
The birds
Reptiles
Sparrows

[b] Write a *transitive verb* between the following *subjects* and (94) *objects*.]

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Object.</i>
The power	_____	no effect.
The mother	_____	her child.
The boy	_____	the horse.
The measure	_____	a gallon.
She	_____	the form.
The soldier	_____	a wound.
She	_____	a friend.

[c] Write down a *transitive verb* and its *object* after each of the following *subjects*.]

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Object.</i>
This	_____	_____
The mind	_____	_____
The hound	_____	_____
He	_____	_____

Lesson 15.—Pronouns.

If Henry wished to tell me what he thought, 95 would he say "Henry thinks so and so?" [No.]

What would he say? [I think so and so.]

If you wished to tell Richard what he ought 96 to do, should you say "Richard ought to do so and so?" [No.]

What should you say? [You ought to do so and so.]

If you had told me that "*John* requested you 97 to say so;" and I were to say, "Did John really tell you to say this?" should you reply "*John* really did" or "*he* really did?" [*He* really did.]

- (97) *Substantives* are sometimes called *nouns*.

When, then, instead of saying "*John did it*," I say "*he did it*," I use "*he*" instead of the noun (or *substantive*) "*John*."

When, instead of using my own name, I say "*I did it*," I use "*I*" instead of *my own name*, which is a *substantive* or *noun*.

- 98 Words of this kind, that are used *for nouns*, are called *pro-nouns*, for in Latin '*pro*' means '*for*.'

If "*we* were there," that is "*John, Mary, and I* were there," then *I* should say, "*I* was there."

John would say, "*I* was there."

Mary would say, "*I* was there."

So that, though "*we*" does not mean "two or more *I*'s," it may be considered the *plural* of "*I*," because it would mean *several persons*, each of whom would speak of himself as "*I*."

- 99 We must now get a name: there is a proverb in Latin which says "*a man is nearest to himself*;" and there is an English piece of advice (which is often *bad, selfish* advice), "to think first of *number one*," that is, of *oneself*. Since, then, we generally begin with ourselves, "*I*" is called the pronoun "*of the first person*." It is also "*a personal pronoun*," because it stands for a *person*. It is only in *Fables*, that things, such as *files, oaks*, and so on, are represented as saying "*I* did so and so."

- 100 "*I*," plural "*we*," is therefore "*the personal pronoun of the first person*."

- 101 What did Nathan say to David, after he had told him the parable of the *poor man and his one ewe lamb*? [*Thou art the man.*]

Would “*you* are the man” mean the same? (101)
[Yes.]

Let us see whether “*you*” and “*thou*” agree 102
together in *all* respects.

Could I say of *you, John, and Mary*, “didst
thou go to Rochester?” [No.]

Could I say of *you, John, and Mary*, “did *you*
go to Rochester?” [Yes.]

The fact is, that “*you*” is the plural of “*thou*,” 103
but by a *caprice* of fashion it has come to be used
for *one person* as well as for *several*.

When I say “*you did it*,” a Quaker would say 104
“*thou didst it*.”

The Quakers say “*thou*,” on the ground that it
is not *true* to use “*you*” of a single person; but
this is a wrong ground, for the meaning of a word
is the meaning it *has*; the meaning it conveys:
and if I were to say to the most uneducated man
alive, “*you did this*,” he would know that I
meant to say *he* did it.

Almost every language has some caprice of this kind, in its use
of the *personal pronouns*.

“*Thou*” or “*you*.” plural “*you*,” is a personal 105
pronoun: it is called the “pronoun of the *second*
person.” We speak of “the *person addressed*”
as “the *second person*,” because he is generally
nearer to us than persons in general,—at least
when we *speak* to him.

<i>He</i> , plural, <i>they</i> ,	} are the pronouns of the 106
<i>She</i> , — <i>they</i> ,	
<i>It</i> , — <i>they</i> ,	

third person.

He, is used to denote *men*, or *male* animals. 107

She, ————— *women*, or *female* animals.

It, ————— *things*.

Exercise 17.

108 [Put a *pronoun* instead of the word or words in *italics*. You will often find it necessary to make some change in the verb.]

a) *Henry* and *Emma* are the speakers.

b) *John* and *Mary* are persons the speaker is addressing.

c) Other names are the names of persons *spoken of*.

1. A bitter winter *the winter* was, when these verses were composed. 2. *Henry* slept in a room over a passage that was not ceiled. 3. The people of the house used to say that *the people of the house* expected *Henry* would be frozen to death some night. 4. Here also *William* composed a long poem. 5. The poem was much longer, containing a great deal more which *Henry* has forgotten, as *Henry* never wrote *that great deal more* down. 6. There were many more verses, but these will still give *John and Mary* some idea of *those many more*. 7. *Henry* is lonely, and wants *John and Mary*. 8. *Henry and Emma* are lonely, and want *John and Mary*. 9. *William and Charlotte* are lonely, and want *Henry and Emma*. 10. *William* is lonely, and wants *Emma*. 11. This eminence could not be seen from our orchard seat. *This eminence* arises above the road by the side of Grasmere.

Lesson 16.—The Persons of a Verb.

109 [Recapitulation. What is the *subject* of a sentence (55, a)? What is the *predicate* of a sentence (55, b)? What is the name for what is said about the subject (55, b)? What is the name for the person or thing about which something is said (55, a)? What, at the least, must every sentence contain (58)? What is the *pronoun of the first person* (100)? What is the pronoun of the second person (105)?—the pronouns of the third person (106)?]

110 Instead of saying "the star *shone*," I must say — what? [The star *shine-s*.]

How have you changed "*shine*" to make it fit

to form a sentence with "*the star?*" [I have (110) added an *s* to it.]

How must you alter "*fetch*" to fit it to form a 111 sentence with "*the lad,*" and express that the action is done now? [I must add *es* : *fetch-es.*]

"I *fly*:" he — what? [He *flies.*] 112

"I *delay*:" he — what? [He *delays.*]

Does the *y* in "*fly,*" follow a vowel or a con- 113 sonant?

Does the *y* in "*delay,*" follow a vowel or a consonant?

Observe, that you must write, not *ys*, but *ies*, when the letter immediately before the *y* is a consonant.

If I take any verb (for instance, "*to fish*") I can 114 say, "*I fish,*" "*we fish,*" "*you fish,*" "*they fish,*" "*the men fish,*" without any change; but with "*he,*" "*she,*" or any singular substantive, we must make the change just described, of adding *s* or *es*.

What must I say instead of 115

"Thou *love* him?" [Thou *love-st* him.]

"Thou *fetch* it?" [Thou *fetch-est* it.]

"Thou *laugh*?" [Thou *laugh-est.*]

For *y-est*, write *i-est*, when a word ends in *y* after a consonant: "*Thou criest.*"

Exercise 18.

[Form sentences out of the following words; using *a* or *the,* or 116 *my, your, his, their,* with the substantives. *Es*, must be added to verbs that end in *ss, sh, tch, x.*]

1. Boy fish.
2. Dog catch hare.
3. Girl sweep room.
4. Henry box ear.
5. Word express this.
6. Man bless king.
7. Horse leap.
8. Gardener wheel barrow.
9. He cut bread.
10. She spread butter.
11. Boy learn lesson.

- (116) 12. Cat scratch. 13. Woman latch door. 14. Tailor patch elbow. 15. This match coat. 16. Doctor wish for patient. 17. Cat kill mouse. 18. Thou think so. 19. The child cry. 20. Thou cry. 21. The child play. 22. Thou play.

Lesson 17.—The Persons.

117 The *forms* used after substantives and the *personal pronouns* are called the *persons* of a verb.

118 The form of a *verb* that follows the *pronoun of the first person*, is called the *first person* of the verb.

The form after the *pronoun of the second person*, is called the *second person* of the verb.

The form that follows a *personal pronoun of the third person*, is called the *third person* of the verb.

119 As far as we have yet seen, all the persons are alike, except the *second* and *third persons* of the *singular number*.

	<i>Person. Singular Number.</i>	<i>Plural Number.</i>
120	1. I love.	1. We love.
	2. Thou lovest.	2. You love.
	3. He loves.	3. They love.

121 We shall find that the verb undergoes other changes, to mark, in some measure, *the time* when an action was done.

He *forsakes* his friend: can I say "He *forsakes* his friend last year?" [No.]

What must I say? ["He *forsook* his friend last year."]

122 Hence, to put *forsake* in the proper form for expressing the action of *forsaking* as done in past time, I must change *forsake* into *forsook*.

Exercise 19.

[In the following exercise, add *yesterday*; or *last week*, *last month*, *last year*, to each sentence. Thus: "the bird *forsakes* her nest," would be changed into "the bird *forsook* her nest yesterday."] 123

1. He *shakes* the boughs of the old apple-tree. 124
2. The lawyer *takes* no interest in the question.
3. He *swears* by the god of battles. 4. The huntsman *wears* a green coat. 5. He *bears* no hatred or malice in his heart. 6. The wave *breaks* against the shore. 7. He *steals* away the hearts of all the people. 8. I often *speak* two or three words to him. 9. He *weaves* an intricate web. 10. They *steal* away. 11. Money put into the Savings Bank *bears* interest. 12. He *chooses* one for himself and two for his sister. 13. He *drives* a carriage and four. 14. Wheat *rises* in price. 15. He *writes* a good hand.

Lesson 18.—Tenses. The Perfect.

The proper forms of the verb which intimate 125 something about the time of the action (121), are called its "*tenses*."

The forms which imply that the action is *doing*, 126 or that the state exists *now*, make up "the *present tense*" of the verb.

The forms which imply that the action was 127 completed at a *former time* make up the "*past tense*" of a verb; which is often called its "*perfect (tense)*," or "*preterite*." The *preterite* has a different form for the *second person* singular, but not for the *third person* singular.

I fought.	We ———?	[fought.]	128
Thou ———?	[fought-est.]	You ———?	[fought.]
He ———?	[fought.]	They ———?	[fought.]

- 129 Let us now find out the “*preterites*,” or “*perfects*” of some verbs:—

I *hide* myself: and yesterday I —? *hid* myself.
 It *blows* a gale: _____ it *blew* a gale.
 I *catch* cold: _____ I *caught* cold.
 I *run*: _____ I *ran*.
 I *fall*: _____ I *fell*.

- 130 Thus you see that there are *various* ways of making a change in the form of a verb, to adapt it to express a past time; in other words, of forming its *preterite* or *perfect*.

Exercise 20.

[Make the necessary changes in the *verbs* contained in the following sentences.]

- 131 1. The horse *throws* his rider over his head.
 2. His mother *chides* him. 3. He will *fly* to the assistance of his friend. 4. He *grows* stronger every day. 5. His brother *knows* Latin well, and has already begun Greek. 6. They *are drawing* the lower pond. 7. He *teaches* Hebrew for six shillings a lesson. 8. He *swims* across the river. 9. The cook *is buying* butter and eggs. 10. He *slides* down the side of the hill. 11. They *draw* lots for the first place. 12. The oxen *tread* out the corn. 13. He *bites* his nails. 14. The young cocks *crow* louder than the old one. 15. Thou *delayest*. 16. Thou *criest*, my child, night and day.

Lesson 19.—The Perfect (continued).

- 132 “I *fall* to day;” “I *fell* yesterday.” In changing “*fall*” into “*fell*,” have I changed the *consonants* of *fall*, or its *vowel*? [Its *vowel*.]
 133 So when I change “*draw*” into “*drew*,”

"*smite*" into "*smote*," and so on, I change the (133) *vowel* of the verb.

When I change "*swear*" into "*swore*," I 134 change *ea* into *o*, and add what is called a *silent e* to the end of the word. But the real vowel-sound, the sound for which *ea* stands, is *long a*; and the real vowel-sound of the *o* with the final *silent* (or *unpronounced*) *e*, is that of *long o*. Hence, when I change *ea* into *o*—*e*, I change the *vowel-sound* of *long a*, into the *vowel-sound* of *long o*.

We may say, therefore, that one way of making 135 a verb express *past time*, is that of *changing its vowel-sound*.

Sometimes there is also a change of the final con- 136 sonant or consonants; thus, "*think*," "*thought*;" "*fight*," "*fought*;" "*seek*," "*sought*."

A final *y* is often changed: 137

a) I *fly* to help him; and yesterday I? — [*flew* to help him].

b) I *buy* four for twopence; but yesterday I? — [*bought* four for twopence.]

But there is another quite *different way* of 138 obtaining a form of the verb for denoting *past time*:

I *defend* you to-day; and yesterday also I? — [*defended* you].

I *befriend* him; and last year also I? — [*befriended* his father].

What change have you made in "*defend*," "*be-* 139 *friend*," to obtain forms for a *past time*? [I have added *ed*.]

I *slice* a cucumber; and yesterday, too, I? — [*sliced* a cucumber].

Have you added *ed* here? [No: only *d*.]

Exercise 21.

140 [Put the following verbs into the proper forms to express past time.]

1. I *consider* the fluctuating nature of these things. 2. I *shall* absolutely *reject* the proposal. 3. This *enables* them to resist compulsion. 4. The persons about him *humour* him too much. 5. This representation *convinces* him. 6. We *shall change* our measures and comply with the necessity of our situation. 7. I *call* this obstinacy. 8. I *direct* his attention to the point. 9. I *endure* pains, hardships, and difficulties. 10. Desire *urges* us to the task. 11. Some fatigue or obstacle *will intervene*. 12. The arrow *flies* through the air. 13. He *completes* whatever work he *undertakes*. 14. These considerations *fortify* our resolves. 15. This *withdraws* our attention from the difficulties, and *heightens* our desire to attain the object.

Lesson 20.—Further Remarks on the Present and Perfect Tenses of a Verb.

141 “Where law *ends*, tyranny *begins*.” do I mean that *tyranny begins now*, where *law ends now*, or that *tyranny always* begins where *law ends*? [That *tyranny always* begins where *law ends*.]

142 “Henry *writes* a good hand:” do I mean that he *does so to-day only*? or that he *does so whenever he writes*; or, in other words, *has the power of doing so*, and exercises it *when he pleases*? [That he *has the power of doing so*.]

143 Then the present is used of *general truths*, as well as of *present truths*. It may state what is true at all times.

144 In the same way the *perfect*, or *preterite*, may

denote what regularly took place at some past (144) time,—a *habit*, *power*, &c. “Henry *writes* a good hand; and his father *wrote* a good hand before him.”

Exercise 22.

[In the following exercise, change the present tenses into *perfects*, and the *perfects* into present tenses; and also put in an *adjective* wherever a *gap* is left.]

1. These propensities take us at unawares. 2. He falls into ——— bad habits without being sensible of it. 3. Indolence and pride make their approaches covertly. 4. Desire enticed by the ——— delight promised upon gratification. 5. I forbear hankering after pleasure lost. 6. I gain ground by repelling the first attack, but lose it all again upon the second. 7. Men often give way for fear of this uneasiness. 8. He keeps this vigour perpetually alert. 9. He obeyed the command of reason. 10. Education, custom, and habit, raised a different set of ideas in each ——— man. 11. He trifles sadly with his time. 12. Perhaps laziness lies at the bottom of all pride and vanity.

Lesson 21.—Participles.

If you were holding up a stick which some one (146) had broken, you would say “here is a ———” *what* stick? [“A *broken* stick.”]

Could you use any *one* word with ‘*snow*,’ to (147) express that you are speaking of snow “*whilst it is falling*?” [Yes: “*falling snow*.”]

Could you use any *one* word with ‘*snow*,’ to (148) express that you are speaking of snow “*which has fallen*” already? [Yes: “*fallen snow*.”]

I can say, you see:—

Pure snow.		Falling snow.
A long stick.		A broken stick.

- | | | | |
|-------|--------------------|--|------------------------|
| (148) | A <i>good</i> boy. | | A <i>sleeping</i> boy. |
| | A <i>new</i> coat. | | A <i>torn</i> coat. |

What *parts of speech* are "*pure?*" "*long?*" "*good?*" "*new?*" [*Adjectives or property-words.*]

Since I can speak of "*a torn coat*" as well as of "*a new coat:*" "*a barking dog*" as well as of "*a black dog:*" are not "*torn*" and "*barking*" very like *adjectives*, to say the least? [Yes.]

- 149 If I *tear* a coat, it becomes "*a torn coat.*"

If a dog *barks*, it is "*a barking dog.*"

If water *runs*, it is "*running water.*"

If peas are split, they are "*split peas.*"

If snow *is falling*, it is "*falling snow.*"

If snow *has fallen*, it is "*fallen snow.*"

Then such words as "*torn,*" "*barking,*" "*running,*" "*split,*" "*falling,*" "*fallen,*" have, besides the nature of *adjectives*, something of the nature of *verbs* too, have they not?

- 150 Thus "*torn,*" "*barking,*" "*fallen,*" and so on, are a sort of *verbal-adjectives*; but they are called *participles*, because they *participate* in (that is, *partake of*) the nature of both *verbs* and *adjectives*.

- 151 "A *barking dog,*" means a dog that is barking *now*; or was barking at the time spoken of.

When I speak of "*a fallen tree,*" do I mean that it *is falling* now, or that it is already *fallen*? ["That it is already fallen."]

Then it really *fell* at some time before *now*, did it not? [Yes.]

But still it is *now* "*a fallen tree,*" is it not? [Yes.]

That is, it is *now* in the state in which it *began*

to be as soon as it *fell*; as soon as the *action of* (151) *falling* was over.

Thus then "*falling*" marks an action as *going on*; "*fallen*" a *completed* action, or a *state* that *dates* its beginning from a completed action.

Participles that end in *-ing* mark an action 152 *now going on*, and are called "*present participles*," or "*participles of present time*."

Participles that end in *d, t, n* mark *completed* 153 *states*, which were brought about by *former* (that is, *past*) actions, and are called *past participles*; or "*participles of past time*."

Exercise 23.

[Insert a *participle* in each of the gaps left in the following 154 Exercise.]

1. The cloth will never regain its — colours.
2. These were not his real, but his — motives.
3. A penny — is a penny —.
4. Let him reflect what he feels when he sits down to a well — table, or reads a — book.
5. — pleasures are real pleasures, even before they are actually enjoyed.
6. On receiving an assurance that in two days' time you should be perfectly cured, should not you feel an — joy, that would overpower the pangs of your distemper?
7. Suppose a man — through a lonely forest, — with a gang of desperate villains, who murder all they meet; he sees them — towards him, and has but just time to jump into a bog, where he can hide his head behind a little bush.

Lesson 22.—Prepositions.

"The book is *upon* the table:" how is the book 155 placed *with respect to* the table? [It is *upon* it.]

How is the table placed *with respect to* the book? [It is *under* it.]

- 156 "He went *through* the gate:" what was his direction and progress *with respect* to the gate? [It was *through* the gate.]

"The fly is *in* the glue-pot:" what is the local situation of the fly with respect to the glue-pot? [It is *in* it.]

- 157 ☞ Thus you see that these little words *under*, *upon*, *in*, *through*, mark some *relation* between one thing and another. What is said of the one is said *with respect* to the other.

For instance: when I say "the book is *upon* the table," with respect to the table it is *upon* it; but *with respect* to the ceiling what is it? [It is *under* or *below* it.]

With respect to the floor what is it? [It is *above* it.]

With respect to the inkstand close by its side, where does the book lie? [It lies *by* the inkstand.]

These little words which mark the *relation* between one *thing* or *action* and another, are called *prepositions*.

(Preposition comes from *pro-* before, and *positus*, placed: because they are *placed* just *before* a noun.)

[Learn the list of *prepositions* in "the Companion."]

Exercise 24.

[Place a *preposition* in each of the following gaps.]

1. This is the only recompense I can make you — your kind attention — my affairs — my illness. 2. I would gladly do any thing — which you could receive pleasure. 3. I left St. Alban's — the seventeenth; and arrived that day — Cambridge, spent some time — my brother, and came hither — the twenty-second.

4. I have a lodging that puts me continually — (157) mind — our summer excursions. 5. I brought a servant — me — St. Alban's, who is the very mirror — fidelity and affection — his master. 6. Men do not usually bestow these encomiums — their lackeys. 7. The Ouse is here as wide as the Thames — Windsor. 8. The Thames has not more flowers — its banks. 9. It is not difficult — me to perceive — it the hand — infinite mercy likewise. 10. When I consider the effect it has had — me, I am exceedingly thankful — it; and, — hypocrisy, esteem it the greatest blessing, next — life itself. I ever received — the divine bounty.

Lesson 23.—The Participial Substantive.

"He is filled with an uneasy dread of *falling* 158 into their hands." Is not *falling* here *the thing* which the person in question dreads?

Are *thing-words* adjectives or substantives?

Then when I say "a falling tree," *falling* is like 159 an adjective; but when I speak of "the dread of *falling*," "*falling*" is used like a substantive, is it not?

Can I say "his vexation at *having fallen* before two young ladies?" [Yes.]

What was the thing that *vexed* him? [His *having fallen*.]

Then "*having fallen*" is used as a *substantive* or *thing-word*, is it not? [Yes.]

"The scoundrel is ashamed of *having been kicked* in public." What was the *thing* of which the scoundrel was ashamed? ["The *having been kicked*."]

(159) Does the "*having been kicked*" mean *one thing*, though it is made up of three words? [Yes.]

160 The *participial substantive* looks like a *participle*—it is, indeed, the very same *in form*—but it differs from it in its meaning: which is that of an action, spoken of as *a thing*, which some person or persons *do* or have *done*.

"The practice of *running*." Is "*running*" a participle or a participial substantive?

"A brook of *running* water." Is "*running*" a participle or a participial substantive?

161 Now I will ask you the same question with each of several words, that are sometimes participles and sometimes *participial substantives*.—Say *participle* or *participial substantive* after each sentence I read.

1. a) A *chattering* boy.
b) The habit of *chattering*.
2. a) *Returning* night.
b) The difficulty of *returning*.
3. a) By *talking* instead of *working*.
b) A *talking* pig.
4. a) An *afflicted* soul.
b) Sorrow for *having afflicted* him.
5. *Talking* is not *working*.

When I say "*of (by, from) thinking*," what parts of speech are "*of?*" "*by?*" "*from?*" [Prepositions.]

162 ¶ When what looks like a participle, depends on a *preposition* (that is to say, has a preposition just before it), it is a *participial substantive*, unless it is followed by another *substantive*, and used like an adjective with it.

When I say "*the task of dusting the carpet* is a troublesome business," is the *carpet* called a *dusting carpet*? [No.]

“*Dusting the carpet*” means the *act of dusting* (162) *the carpet*, does it not? [Yes.]

Then you see what looks like a participle, and 163 is dependent on a preposition, may be, not a participle, but the *participial substantive*, even when another substantive follows it, *if* the word that looks like a participle is used, not like an adjective, but like a *substantive*.

☞ This is the hardest lesson you have had, 164 but you will have gained a very useful piece of knowledge, if you have learnt to distinguish a *participle* from a *participial substantive*.

You will find no difficulty in doing this, if you try whether the word in question is used like a *substantive* (to denote a *thing*, an *action*) ; or, like an *adjective*, to describe the *property* (“*some present action*” or “*continued state*”) of another substantive.

Exercise 25.

[Put in a *participial substantive* in each of the gaps in the 165 following Exercise.]

1. Even a distant advantage may raise in us a desire of — it. 2. He blames himself for — the opportunity. 3. This is of great use in — us with employment for our time. 4. I am walking for the sake of —. 5. After — many remedies to no purpose, I have lost all hopes of relief. 6. This is attended by some inconveniences, by — us sometimes with unavoidable evils, before they come; and — us tremble at imaginary dangers that would never have fallen upon us. 7. Neither does every — after other pursuits at intervals, make a discontinuance of the first. 8. He gains much time by the habit of — business quickly.

Lesson 24.—Active and Passive Voice.

- 166 “The mother *punishes* the child:” is “to *punish*” *transitive* or *intransitive*? [*Transitive.*]

Who is the *object* suffering the punishment?
[*The child.*]

“The mother *punishes* the child:” here the child is punished.

“The child *is punished* by the mother:” what is the suffering *object* here? [*The child.*]

What word is the *subject* of the sentence, “the child *is punished* by the mother?” [*The child.*]

- 167 “*The child*” *suffers* (that is, *receives passively*), the *action* of punishment. When the *subject* of the sentence *suffers* the action denoted by a transitive verb, the verb is said to be in the *passive* voice.

The *passive voice* is, in English, made up of the verb “to be,” and a *past participle*.

I am loved.	We	—?	} [are loved.]
Thou —?	[art loved.]	Ye or you —?	
He —?	[is loved.]	They —?	

When it is the *object* that suffers, the verb is in the *active* voice.

- 168 *Intransitive* verbs cannot take a *passive* voice: therefore they are *always* in the *active* voice.

Those, however, that are both *transitive* and *intransitive*, may have a *passive* voice:

“The girl *sings*.”

“The girl *sings a song*.”

“The song *is sung*.”

“The song *is sung by the girl*.”

“The mother *punishes the child*.” Here

The *object* is — what? [*The child.*]

The *subject* is — what? [*The mother.*]

Since, then, "*child*," which was the *object* (in 169 the *accusative* case) after the *active voice*, is the *subject* (in the *nominative*) before the *passive voice*, and we shall find the same change of *object* into *subject* to take place whenever we turn an *active transitive* verb into a *passive* one, we may conclude that the *object* of the active verb always become the *subject* of the passive verb, when a sentence whose verb is in the active voice, is turned into an equivalent sentence whose verb is in the passive voice.

☞ Hence we have this rule: 170

The *object* of the *active* verb becomes the *subject* of the *passive* verb.

"The mother punishes the child." "The mother" is the — what? [The *subject*.]

"The child is punished by the mother." The mother, which was the subject of the active voice ["The mother punishes —"], is connected with the passive verb by the *preposition* "*by*."

☞ Hence (by reasoning similar to that in 169), 171 the *subject* of the *active* voice is connected with the *passive* voice by the preposition "*by*."

A subject who is the *doer* of an action is called "*the agent*."

Exercise 26.

- [1. Turn the active voice into the passive when (*p*) follows it.] 172
[2. ——— passive voice ——— active — (*a*) ———]

1. I have now, with much pains and study, *conducted* (*p*) the reader to an important period.
2. This treatise of mine was *translated* (*a*) by a very learned critic. 3. The learned members of the French Academy *will*, I hope, favorably *accept* (*p*) these humble offers. 4. A whole continent was *purchased* (*a*) by Lord Peter. 5. Columbus *discovered* (*p*) a new hemisphere.

(172) [Mark whether the following verbs are *transitives* or *intransitives*.]

6. The man *speaks* the truth.
7. The boy *bought* some apples.
8. The girl *smiled*.
9. They have *published* his mistakes.

Lesson 25.—The “Future” of a Verb.

173 We naturally divide *time* into that which is *past*, that which *now is* (*present* time), and that which *is to come* (*future* time). A particular form of the verb is appropriated to each division of time.

Hence arise three principal forms of the verb, one for *present time*, one for *past time*, and one for *future time*. Each of these forms is called a “*tense* ;” and hence we get a *present* tense ; a *past* tense, called the *perfect*, or *preterite* ; and a *future* tense.

174 a) We have seen that the *present* tense is the verb itself in its simplest form—I *love*, *play*, *sing*.

b) The “*preterite*,” or “*perfect*” tense, is generally formed by a change (called “*inflection*”), and that in two ways :

Either (1) *d* or *ed* is added to the verb : *love*, *loved* ; *moved*, *moved* ; *try*, *tried* ;

(2) the vowels of the verb, and sometimes its final consonants, are changed : *strive*, *strone* ; *catch*, *caught* ; *bring*, *brought*.

(3) sometimes the *preterite* is of the same form as the *present* : *put*, *put* ; *cast*, *cast*.

175 When the verb ends in a single consonant following a short vowel, and has the accent on the *penultimate*, the final consonant is *doubled* before

ed: refer', refer'ed. "I try to-day" — what (175) yesterday? [I tried.]

Y impure is changed into *i* before *ed*: try, *tried*.

Now let us find the form for *future time*; or, in 176 other words, the *future* of a verb.

In speaking to John, tell him that he will fall if he does not take care. [*John*, you *will fall*, if you don't take care.]

The combination "*will fall*," is called the *future tense*; it declares what *will* take place at a future time.

If you try, you will find that "*will*" remains 177 unaltered, except after *thou*:

You will go.

Thou — what? [*wilt* go.]

"*You will be drowned*, if you venture into that rapid mill-stream." Suppose I were to put "*we*" instead of "*you*;" should I say "*we will be drowned*, if we venture into that rapid mill-stream?" [No.]

What *should* I say? [*We shall be drowned*, if we venture into that rapid mill-stream.]

What *should* the Irishman have said, who ex- 178 claimed, "Oh! I *will be* drowned, nobody *shall* save me?" [Oh! I *shall be* drowned, nobody *will* save me.]

Would not, "you *shall* not save me," mean, I *will forbid*, or *prevent* your saving me? [Yes.]

Would not, "you *shall* do it," mean, you shall be compelled to do it? [Yes.]

"*Shall*," then, implies *compulsion*. It may, 179 indeed, be a very mild compulsion, as when I say,

(179) "my servant *shall* bring it back to-morrow;" that is, I will tell him, order him, to do so.

180 Should I say, "I *shall* bring it back to-morrow morning?" or, "I *will* bring it back to-morrow morning?" [I *will* bring it back to-morrow morning.]

181 With respect to the difference between *shall* and *will* in the *first person* (that is, with "*I*," or "*we*"), an old rhyming rule says:

"In the first person simply *shall* foretells,
In *will* a threat or else a promise dwells."

Let us try this:

"I *shall* fall if I don't walk very cautiously:" do I do more than simply *foretell* my *falling*, as what will take place if I do not walk carefully. [No.]

182 But "*shall*" often declares a *resolution*, announces the *will* or *intention* of the speaker.

"I *shall* work harder next half year."

"I *shall* go to town to-morrow."

"I *shall* pay you what is just."

183 Now for "*will*," with "*I*," or "*we*," our rule says:

"In *will* a threat or else a promise dwells."

"I *will* flog you:" what do I *threaten* to do?

"I *will* give you a half-holiday:" what do I *promise* to do here?

184 When I say, "you *will* repent of your rashness if you do this," do I *threaten*, or simply *foretell* the person's future repentance? [You simply *foretell* it.]

185 When I say, "you *will*, I am sure, be glad of it some day or other," do I *promise*, or simply *foretell*? [You simply *foretell*.]

Yes: to *foretell some evil*, may, indeed, be a (185) threat, and still oftener come very near to one; and so when I *foretell a good consequence*, I often *promise* it, if its realization depends upon me.

The rule goes on to say :

186

"Shall in the second and the third does *threat*,
Will simply then *foretells* the coming *feat*."

This is a very bad rule; for "*shall*," in the second and third persons, may just as well *promise* as *threaten*.

"These horses *shall* be well fed."

"They *shall* be well paid."

The true rule is, that "*shall*" foretells that 187 something will be done in consequence of a *command* or direction of the speaker, or of an exercise of his *own will*.

"The horses *shall* be well groomed, sir:" if the hostler says this, he means that he *will* groom them well.

In the first person the meaning is the same; 188 only if a man *commands himself* to do the action, it means that he directs his *own will* to do it: it declares, therefore, a simple *resolution* or intention of the speaker's.

In the second and third persons, "*will*" simply 189 foretells.

FUTURE.

Simply foretelling.

I shall go.

Thou wilt go.

He will go.

We will go.

You will go.

They will go.

190

Foretelling with compulsion.

I will go.

Thou shalt go.

He shall go.

We will go.

You shall go.

They shall go.

(190)

IN THE PASSIVE.

Simply foretelling.

I shall be drowned.		We shall be drowned.
Thou wilt be drowned.		You will be drowned.
He will be drowned.		They will be drowned.

Foretelling with compulsion.

I will be drowned.		We will be drowned.
Thou shalt be drowned.		You shall be drowned.
He shall be drowned.		They shall be drowned.

Exercise 27.[Put the verbs into the *future* tense.]

- 191 1. I *remark* further that the mind cannot always call up those thoughts, which for the most part lie ready at her summons. 2. All *remains* as before. 3. I *inquire* whether some motive does not influence us in every thing we do. 4. Against the second attack I *make* the same defence as I did upon the former. 5. The ordinary parish schools *are neglected*. 6. Begin your education at the top of society: let the head go, the tail *follows*. 7. These boys *are* in consequence less likely to go astray when they grow up to men. 8. The question is whether the lower classes *are instructed* or no. 9. If we look back upon the progress of things in this country since the Reformation, we *find* that instruction has never been severed from moral influences. 10. You *agree* with me, I think. 11. You *have* double postage to pay for this letter.

Lesson 26.—The Perfect definite.

- 192 "I *have written* my letter:" is the act of writing over? [Yes.]

Can you say, "I *have written* my letter yester- (192)
day?" [No.]

If you say, "I *have written* two letters this 193
morning," is the morning supposed to be over?
[No.]

If the morning *were* over,—for instance, if it 194
were now *the evening*, would you say, "I *have
written* two letters this morning," or, "I *wrote*
two letters this morning?" [I wrote two letters
this morning.]

Would you say "there *were* great men in the 195
present century," or, "there *have been* great men
in the present century?" [There have been great
men in the present century.]

What part of speech is "*have*?" [A verb.] 196

What part of speech is "*written*?" [A parti-
ciple.]

Then such a form as "*have written*," is made
up of the verb "*have*," and a *past participle*.

You will find that this *form*, or *tense* of the 197
verb, is never used except of things that *have been
done* in some *present* time.

"The arts *have made* great progress in the pre- 198
sent century."

Can I say, "great men *have lived* at Nineveh?" 199
[No.]

Why not? [Because *at the present time* there
is *no Nineveh*: the time of Nineveh's existence is
quite over.]

Can I say, "great men *have lived* at Rome?" 200
[Yes.]

Why? [Because Rome still exists: the time
of Rome's existence is *not over*.]

So I can say, "many poets *have sung* the tale 201"

(201) of Orpheus and Eurydice," because other poets may still do so: hence the time within which the singing of the poets takes place, is not yet over.

202 This form is called the "*perfect definite*:" it is called *perfect*, because it denotes that the action is *completed*; and *definite*, because it fixes the action to a *definite* space of time—to some time (be it *long* or *short*) that is considered as still present.

203 The other form of the perfect is quite *indefinite*: "I *wrote* the letter:" as far as this statement goes, nothing is told about the time of my writing the letter, except that it was at *some* past time: perhaps *yesterday*, perhaps *last year*; perhaps when I was quite a *child*.

204 Taking "*to love*" for our example, the *perfect definite* of the passive voice is, "*I have been loved*."

205 The verb "*have*," is one of those which are called "*auxiliary verbs*" (that is, *helping verbs*); because they *help* to make up the tenses that have not any simple forms.

I have ———

Thou ——— what? [hast.]

He ——— what? [has.]

We, you, they, *have*.

Exercise 28.

(a) Change *after* into *since*, and make whatever other change is rendered necessary.

b) Put the verbs in crotchets into the *perfect definite*.]

- 206 1. *After* our marriage we dwelt at Townend.
 2. In 1813 we came to Rydal mount, where we *lived* with no further sorrow till 1836, when my sister became a confirmed invalid. [Alter *lived* to suit the case of those who are *still living* there.]
 3. Two years and a half passed away *after* the dictation of these notes. 4. We are right glad to

find ourselves in England, for we [*learn*] to know (206) its value. 5. I [*give*] this brief abstract of the work. 6. The work [*commence*, pass. voice]. 7. We [*remain*] here for nearly six months. 8. I [*describe*] this scene in a letter to your uncle. 9. Up to this city I [*accompany*, pass. voice] to your aunt. 10. The rest of the week [*be*] bad weather. 11. I [*think*] of building a house there by the lake-side. 12. We [*be*] in such confusion as not to have had a moment's leisure.

Lesson 27.—The Pluperfect.

We can not only say, "*I have written a letter*," 207 but "*I had written a letter*;" not only, "*a letter has been written*," but "*a letter had been written*."

Since "*I have written*" denotes a completed or 208 *perfect* action, and "*I had written*" throws the action still further back, it is called the "*pluperfect*," the syllable *plu-* being the Latin *plus*, which means "*more*." So that the *pluperfect* is the '*more than perfect*' tense.

If I were to say to any one, "*I had written* 209 *the letter*," and he knew nothing about the time before which I had written it, he would probably ask, *when* I had written it, would he not? [Yes.]

In fact, the *pluperfect* has no meaning, till 210 another time, *before which* the action took place, is either expressed or taken for granted as known.

"I had written before my uncle called:" my 211 uncle called, but before he did so, *I had written the letter*: the action of writing was *completed*, before my uncle called.

Hence the *pluperfect* is one of the *relative* tenses: it denotes time *relatively* to some other

(211) time,—not *absolutely*, that is, as *considered in itself*, without any reference to any other time or occurrence.

212 (He, she, we, you, they) *had* written.

But, thou — what? [*hadst* written.]

So, of course, in the passive voice: “Thou *hadst* been loved:” but “*had* been loved,” serves without alteration for all the other *persons*.

213 Could you say, “*I have a letter written?*”
[Yes.]

What would it mean? [That I still *have* by me a letter which I once wrote—a letter written by me.]

What *part of speech* is written? [A *participle*.]

Of what is the participle *written*, spoken in the sentence “*I have a letter written?*” [A *letter*.]

The form “*I have written*” arose in this way: I *have* the letter in a state when it is called (and *is*) a *written* letter.

In the *passive* *voices* both *been* and *written* are *participles*.

Exercise 29.

[Prefix a verb in the *pluperfect* with its subject, and, if necessary, *object*, to each of the sentences or phrases in the second column. The verbs to be used are in the first column.]

- | | | |
|-----|--|--|
| 214 | 1. (To walk ten miles)
2. (To strike ten)
3. (To write a letter)
4. (To quit Stirling)
5. (To commence a poem)
6. (To have had three wives) | before we came to the porter's lodge.
before we departed.
till it was time to go out.
long before he came to reside there.
when he arrived at Bristol.
when he married my mother. |
|-----|--|--|

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 7. (To be married
three times) | when he asked my aunt (214)
to have him. |
| 8. (To throw a horse
down twice) | before he arrived home. |
| 9. (To fight four
pitched battles) | before he had taken the
field five weeks. |

Lesson 28.—The Future Perfect.

“ If I begin it at once, *I shall have written* it all 215
in an hour’s time.” Does, *I shall have written*,
describe the action as still future ?

Does it describe the action of writing as *com-
pleted—as perfect* ? [Yes.]

Hence the tense is called the *future perfect* : in 216
the active voice it is made up of the *auxiliary*
(or *helping*) verb, “ *have*,” and a past participle.

The auxiliary verb, “ *have*,” will be in the simple
future, “ *shall have*,” or “ *will have*.”

“ I *shall have* written my letter.”

“ He *will have* written his letter.”

Of course, “ thou *shalt* — ; ” “ thou *wilt* — . ”

The *future perfect* is a *relative* tense : “ I *shall* 217
have finished my letter, *before you return* ; *before*
six o’clock,” &c.

In the *passive voice* the future perfect is made 218
up of the *simple future* passive of “ *to be*,” and a
past participle.

	<i>Future passive of to be.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>	219
The letter	<i>will have been</i>	<i>written.</i>	
The wound	<i>will have been</i>	<i>dressed.</i>	
The gloves	<i>shall have been</i>	<i>re-lined.</i>	

Exercise 30.

[Turn the verbs in *italics* into the *future perfect* of the *same* voice in which the verb already is.]

- 220 1. Its appearance *has afforded* us great amusement. 2. Above the whole length of it *was stretched* a body of clouds. 3. I *gave* her a piece of bread. 4. A great sorrow *will befall* her. 5. He *has been* three years at college. 6. I *parted* from M— on Monday afternoon. 7. He *missed* his road in the midst of the storm. 8. You *have entered* into the spirit of them. 9. Thou *will slay* them all. 10. Such reviews *will find* no readers. 11. You *will be* much *gratified* by these breathings of simple nature. 12. Your heart *will be filled* with pleasure.

Lesson 29.—Progressive Forms.

- 221 “*I am writing* a letter :” the action of writing the letter is now in progress, is it not? [Yes.]
- a) “*I was writing* a letter, when he called.”
 - b) “*I have been writing* all the morning.”
 - c) “*I had been writing* half an hour, when he called.”
 - d) “*I shall be writing* out my exercise, when you arrive.”
 - e) “*I shall have been writing* a whole hour, before you arrive.”

Thus, we see, there is a whole set of *progressive* forms.

- 222 The form with “*was*” and the “*present participle*” (*was writing*) is called the *imperfect*, because it describes the action as *going on*, but *not completed—not perfect*.

The *imperfect* (like the *pluperfect*) is a *relative* 223 tense. It has reference, that is, to some other time or action. "I *was writing* a letter, when he arrived:" the action of *writing* the letter is *referred* to the action of his arriving: the time of writing, to the time of his arrival.

These tenses may be thus named:— 224

<i>Progressive Present</i> :	I am writing.
<i>Imperfect</i> :	I was writing.
<i>Progressive Perfect (definite)</i> :	I have been writing.
<i>Progressive Pluperfect</i> :	I had been writing.
<i>Progressive Future</i> :	I shall be writing.
<i>Progressive Future Perfect</i> :	I shall have been writing.

Exercise 31.

[Change the verbs into the corresponding *progressive* forms. The *perfect*¹ into the *imperfect*.]

1. We *have spent* our time pleasantly enough in 225 Germany. 2. I *made* a pedestrian tour in the Highlands. 3. The spot where we *stood* was as dry as the chamber in which I now *sit*. 4. The body of water *varies* every moment. 5. We *have passed* a few weeks with an old friend of my father's. 6. A peasant *had told* us the whole story. 7. All men *sink* into an almost Epicurean selfishness. 8. I long to see what you *have done*. 9. Wordsworth now *prepared* for publication a second volume of smaller poems. 10. By this time tomorrow I *shall be on my road* to Dover. [For "*to be on my road*," use "*to travel*."] 11. By this time on Wednesday I *shall have been on my road* above five hours. [Use "*to travel*."] 12. Many

¹ By *perfect* is meant the perfect formed by inflexion, not the perfect with *have*, which is the "*perfect definite*."

- (225) influences *have weakened* the bonds of domestic affection among the poor.

Lesson 30.—Emphatic and Negative Forms.

- 226 “Do you think so?” “I *do* think so.” “I *do not* think so.” This form, “*do* think,” is used in *positive* (or *emphatic*) statements (“I *do* feel aggrieved”); and in negative statements, *statements*, that is, with “*not*,” where it is much more common than the simple present with “*not*.”
- 227 “I think *not*.” “I *do not* think.”
 I, we, you, they, *do write* :
 But,—thou ——— what? [*dost write.*]
 He, she ——— what? [*does write.*]
- 228 The verb to “*do*,” is another of the *auxiliary*, or *helping* verbs. But it is also used as a principal verb, *e. g.* “I *do* my work.” As a principal verb, it has *doest*, not *dost*, for its second person singular: “Thou *doest* well.”
- 229 The verb to “*do*,” is also used to *stand for* (or *represent*) another verb already used in the sentence. Thus: “I do not *write* so good a hand as he does:” that is (as he *writes*).
- 230 It has its regular tenses:—*I do, I am doing, I do do; I was doing, I did, I have done, I had done; I shall or will do; I shall or will be doing; I shall or will have done.*
- 231 For the perfect there is a similar *emphatic* form: “I *did* write;” “I *did not* write.”
- 232 I, he, we, you, they “*did* write;” but observe, the “*do*,” or “*did*,” may stand a good way *before* the rest of the verb. “I *do* still, in spite of all you have urged, *believe*,” &c.
 Thou ——— what? [*didst write.*]

Exercise 32.

[a) Use the *emphatic present* and *perfect* for the simple present and perfect.

b) Use *do* instead of repeating a verb already used in the sentence.

c) It will be necessary to change *no* or *none* into *not—any*.]

1. I *believe* your lordship will agree with me. 233
2. The Romans *made* no attempts till the time of Claudius.
3. My lord, I here, in the name of all the learned and polite persons of the nation, *complain* to your lordship, as First Minister, that our language is extremely imperfect.
4. William the Conqueror *proceeded* not much further.
5. I firmly *believe* that he was instigated by my pretended friend.
6. *Believest* thou this statement?
7. *Believest* thou his assertion? *I believed* it not.
8. I believed his words more firmly than you *believed* them.
9. I *find* them not in any of our common dictionaries.
10. I *opposed* none of their proceedings.
11. Sir, I *assert* it emphatically.
12. *Turned* you your back really?

Lesson 31.—The Moods of a Verb.

When I say “*you go*,” “*you went*,” “*you will go*,” and so on, I make the assertion as something that *really does*, *did*, or *will* take place. But there are other forms by means of which we express *commands*, *supposed cases*, *quoted assertions*, and so on.

When I say “a person is in a strange *mood*,” I mean he is in a strange *way*—a strange *mode* of mind. *Mode* and *mood* are the same word differently spelt. Now we use this word “*mood*,” to designate, by a collective name, a particular class of thoughts or conceptions, which can be expressed by verbs.

- 236 The "*imperative mood*" states "*commands*;" the Latin word, "*imperare*," meaning *to command*. Hence we speak of "*an imperative duty*," one which *commands* us, as it were, not to neglect it.
- 237 The "*imperative mood*," when we address persons directly, is the verb itself, used without any pronoun, or other word, to denote the subject: "*Fetch me that book.*"
- 238 This meaning of "*command*," or "*precept*," often becomes only an *encouragement*; often a *request*. "*Start boldly!*" "*run!*" (*encouragement*.) "*Pity my affliction!*" (*request*.)
- 239 This simple form belongs only to the *second person* (*singular* and *plural*) of the active voice. For the *third person* we use the verb "*let*," which denotes permission. "*Let him come*," that is, "*permit him to come*:" though by frequent use the force of *let* is weakened, so that it is not *felt* to be so strong (and therefore is *not* so strong in *use*) as that of *permit*.
 "Let them go:" "Let the gardener cut some cabbages for dinner."
- 240 With the first person, this form is an exhortation: "*Let us never doubt*, that the righteous will be rewarded at last."
- 241 When I command a man *not* to do so and so, I *prohibit* his doing it.
- 242 What form is used in *prohibitions*, besides the simple imperative with *not* (as in "*trust not appearances*")? [*Do not trust appearances.*]
- 243 Yes: this form with "*do*" is much more common in prose, and still more so in the language of ordinary conversation, than the simple imperative.
- 244 In the passive voice the imperative is made up—

a) Of “*be*” with the past participle, “*be*” being (244) the imperative of “*to be*.” “*Be persuaded*.”

b) Of “*let*,” followed by an acc. with the verb, as in “*let it be done*” (= *allow it to be done*).

Sometimes an imperative is used to express a 245 condition. “Look, and you will see” (= *if you look, you will see*).

Exercise 33.

[Change the verbs with *if* into imperatives.]

1. “Tom, *take* off the saddle which is upon my 246 bay horse, and *lay* it upon the ground; then *take* the saddle from thy grey horse, and *put* it upon my bay horse; lastly, *put* the other saddle upon thy bay horse.” The fellow gaped all the while at this long preachment, and at last cried out, “Lack-a-day, sir, could not you have said at once, ‘*Change* the saddles?’” [Put the imperative into the third person.] 2. *If we were to describe* all the motions we make in any business transacted, we must spend more time in the narrative than we did in the performance. 3. *To teach* the structure of the human body. [Turn to teach into a prohibition.] 4. *If you try* to do it, you will find how difficult a task it is. 5. Let him *weed* the front court this morning. [Turn it into the passive imperative.] 6. *Weed* the onion-bed this morning. [Turn this into a prohibition.] 7. You and I *will do* it. [Turn this into an exhortation in the imperative.] 8. *If you ask* her whether any one could have hindered if she had resolved positively upon going, she says “No.”

Lesson 32.—Indicative and Infinitive Moods.

When we speak of the moods of a verb, the 247 forms for *present*, *past*, and *future* time that have been already given, are said to be in the “*indica-*

(247) *tive mood* ;” the *mood* which simply *indicates* that the thing *is, was, or will be*, as we assert.

248 Another form of the verb which often takes “*to*” before it, is called the “*infinitive mood* :” “*to swim* ;” “*to run* ;” “*to cut* ;” these are verbs in the *infinitive*.

249 We use the *infinitive*, when we speak of the verb as a *mere word*, without saying that any *subject* (person or thing) *did* what the verb denotes.

250 “ I promise a *speedy return*.”

“ I promise *to return* soon.”

When I promise a *return*, I promise a *thing* ; do I promise a thing, when I promise *to return* ? [Yes.]

Is not a *return* a substantive ? [Yes.]

Then is not “*to return*” used in a way very much resembling a substantive ? [Yes.]

251 “ *To err* is human ; *to forgive*, divine :” what is human ? [To err.]

“ *To err* is human ;” or the lot of all.

“ *Error* is human ;” or the lot of all.

“ *Error*” is a substantive : is not “*to err*” used in a way very much resembling a substantive ? [Yes.]

252 Again compare,—

“ *Forgiveness* is a divine attribute.”

“ *To forgive* is a divine attribute.”

What part of speech is “*forgiveness* ?” [A substantive.]

253 Then “*to forgive*,” nearly resembles a substantive in its use. In fact, the *infinitive mood* is a *verbal substantive* ; it denotes the action of the verb, as a *substantive*.

254 But we have seen that the *participial substantive*

is also a *verbal substantive*. Hence the *participial* (254) *substantive* very closely resembles the infinitive mood: indeed, some grammarians call it an infinitive mood.

Both the infinitive mood and the participial substantive may have compound forms or *tenses*, (like those of the indicative with “*have*,” “*be*,”) and an active and passive voice.

Infinitive Mood.

<i>Active.</i>	<i>Passive.</i>	
<i>Present :</i>		256
To write.	To be written.	
<i>Perfect :</i>		
To have written.	To have been written.	

Participial Substantive.

<i>Active.</i>	<i>Passive.</i>	
<i>Present :</i>		257
Writing.	Being written.	
<i>Perfect :</i>		
Having written.	Having been written.	

We have not yet seen any Infinitive or Participial Substantive for *future time*. There is no such form for the futures already given, but there is a compound form that may be considered a *future*, for denoting what one is *now* purposing to do.

This is, “*I am going to do it* :” “*I am about to do it*” (of which the latter denotes that one is going to do it very soon).

From this form we have,—

Infinitive.

<i>Active.</i>	<i>Passive.</i>	
<i>Future :</i>		260
To be going } to write.	To be going (or about)	
To be about }	to be written.	

Participial Substantive.

- | | | |
|-----|--|------------------------------------|
| | <i>Active.</i> | <i>Passive.</i> |
| 261 | <i>Future :</i>
Going (or about) to
write. | Going (or about) to
be written. |
- 262 “*To forgive* our enemies is a Christian duty.”
 “*It is* a Christian duty to forgive our enemies.”
 What is a Christian duty? [*To forgive* our enemies.]
- 263 Then, “to forgive our enemies,” is the *subject* of the sentence, because it is the thing *about which* something is said. But in the second form (“*It is* a Christian duty, to forgive our enemies”) the little word, “*it*,” stands, indeed, as the *subject*, but it represents, as it were, the *real subject*; which is “*to forgive our enemies*.”

Exercise 34.

[Change *substantives* and *participial substantives* into the *infinitive*, and the *infinitive* into the *participial substantive*, where no other direction is given.]

- 264 1. *The solution* of this difficulty is no easy task. 2. *Working* hard all day, is the way to secure a good night's rest. 3. This is *giving* a larger compass to our ideas than, I believe, Plato allowed them. 4. The *having made* the tour of Europe does not prove that a man is really learned. 5. *Saying* this is easy, but *proving* it is less so. 6. Not *to give way* to weak temptations is no great victory over ourselves. [Use “*it*,” for the subject.] 7. The great victory is *to have resisted* great temptations with success. 8. The *production* of effects is the property of causes. 9. *The having been elected* by so large a majority is a great honour. 10. *Your election* is now secure. 11. *Your election* has filled you with the most intolerable pride.

Lesson 33.—Conjunctions.

1. "He is tall."

265

2. "He stoops a little."

Join these two sentences together, as you would, if you wished to describe a person who was *both* tall and stooped a little. [He is tall, *and* stoops a little.]

What little *joining* word have you used?
[*And.*]

"He is not handsome."

266

"He cannot be said to be graceful."

Join these sentences together.

["He is not handsome, *nor* can he be said to be graceful:" or "*Neither* is he handsome, *nor* can he be said to be graceful."]

What *joining* word or words have you used?
[*Nor* or *neither* — *nor.*]

"He begged it."

267

"He stole it."

Join these two sentences together so as to assert that *one* of the two statements must be true.

[He *either* begged it *or* stole it.]

What *joining* word or words have you used?
[*Either—or.*]

What is a point of *junction*? [A point where 268 things *join.*]

A *con-junction* means a "*joining-with,*" a "*joining-together.*" little *joining* words are called in *Grammar conjunctions.*

[Learn the list of *conjunctions* in "the Companion."]

a) "You will not turn me off now."

269

- (269) *b*) "You have invariably treated me with considerate kindness."

State the second assertion as the *reason* why the first is sure to be true.

[You will not turn me off now, *for* you have invariably treated me with considerate kindness.]

- 270 Some conjunctions state the *cause* or *reason* of a statement made. [*For, because, since, &c.*]

- 271 *a*) "I saw it."

b) "The sun was just sinking behind the hill."

Join these two sentences so as to make the second describe *the time* of your seeing it.

[I saw it, *when* (or *as*) the sun was just sinking behind the hill.]

- 272 Thus some conjunctions mark *time*, that is, they *join* to *one* sentence another which tells *when* the thing *stated occurred, occurs, or will occur* (*when, before, after, till, &c.*).

- 273 *a*) "I mentioned it on purpose."

b) "My purpose was, to discover whether he had heard it before or not."

Join these two sentences together.

[I mentioned it on purpose, *that* I might discover whether he had heard it before or not.]

- 274 Some conjunctions mark a *purpose*.

- 275 *a*) "I can do it (on one condition) ;"

b) "That condition is your lending me a file."

Join these two sentences together.

[I can do it, *if* you can (*or* will) lend me a file.]

- 276 The conjunction '*if*' marks a *condition*.

a) "I can jump over that gate." 277

b) "It is full five feet high."

The fact of the gate's height seems *against* the notion that you can jump over it. Join together, however, your assertion that you can do it in spite of the fact, that seems *adverse to* the notion of your being able.

["*Though* the gate is full five feet high, I can jump over it:" or, "I can jump over the gate *though* it is five feet high:" or, "The gate is five feet high, *but* I can jump over it."

Some conjunctions join together notions that seem *opposed* (or *adverse*) to each other. These are *adversative* conjunctions [though; though—yet; though—still or nevertheless.]

a) "The cup is very hot." 278

b) "I cannot take hold of it."

State your not being able to take hold of the cup as the *consequence* of its being hot.

[The cup is *so* hot, *that* I cannot take hold of it.]

☞ Some conjunctions mark a *consequence* 'that' after the adverb 'so,' or the adjective 'such.'

a) "You are cold." 279

b) "Ice is cold."

Join these assertions, so as to state that if I compare you with *ice*, you and the ice are equally cold.

[You are *as* cold *as* ice.]

a) "Ice is cold." 280

b) "You are absolutely colder."

Join these sentences together.

[You are absolutely colder *than* ice.]

- (280) Some conjunctions mark a *comparison*: ‘*as*—*as*’ compares things as *equal*; ‘*than*’ after a comparative adjective as *unequal*.

Exercise 35.

[Place a *conjunction* in the gaps left in the following Exercises. Words in crotchets are placed to suggest the notion intended.]

- 281 1. I write thus to you, — you may not think me a forlorn — wretched creature. 2. I know — have experience of it every day, — the king’s favour is more — sufficient to compensate for the loss of my regimental rank. 3. You yourself will believe — my happiness is no dream — [*reason*], I have told you the foundation on which it is built. 4. — what I have written would appear like enthusiasm to many, you [however] will acknowledge its possibility. 5. You think I always believed; — I thought so too: — you were deceived, — so was I. 6. I called myself indeed a Christian: — he who knows my heart, knows — I never did a right thing, — abstained from a wrong one — [*reason*] I was so: — [*condition*] I did either, it was under the influence of some other motive. 7. The condition between a Christian and an unbeliever would be very striking — [*condition*] the treacherous allies of the Church would go over at once to the other side. 8. He is — humble-minded — he is learned [mark *equality* of degree].

Lesson 34.—Conjunctions (continued).

- 282 Of these conjunctions, some only join two *complete* sentences together; thus:
- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|--|
| ‘ He is healthy.’
‘ He is strong.’ | } | Each of these is a complete
sentence. |
|---------------------------------------|---|--|

“He is healthy *and* strong:” by the use of (282) “*and*,” I have joined these two independent sentences together, so as to form one sentence.

But if I say,—

“*When* he is healthy (*then*) he is strong;” or 283 (which is the same thing), “*when* he is healthy, he is strong,” I have joined the two sentences together in a different way.

“*When he is healthy:*” here I make *no statement*—no complete sense. If I were to say to George’s father, “when George is healthy,” and stop there, he would *say* (or, at least *think*), “what happens then?” or, “what does he do then?” wouldn’t he? [Yes.]

Then, “*when* he is healthy,” and such sentences 284 with “*when*,” require another sentence to complete the meaning. The same is the case with “*if*,” “*though*,” “*after*,” and many more.

“*If I see him*” — what? [*I will tell him.*]

“*Though you say so*” — what? [*I can hardly believe it.*]

“*After you left*” — what? [*I wrote a letter.*]

Such sentences as are thus incomplete in meaning 285 till another sentence is added to them, are called “*subordinate sentences*.” The added sentence, which contains the principal statement, is called “*the principal sentence*.”

With many conjunctions, the verb is placed, in 286 most languages, in a particular “*mood*,” called the “*subjunctive mood*,” or (in some forms) “*the conditional*,” or “*optative mood*.”

In English, we have hardly any trace of a *sub-* 287

(287) *junctive mood*. What little we have remaining, is found in

a) *Adversative* subordinate sentences.

b) *Conditional* subordinate sentences.

288 a) *Adversative* subordinate sentences are introduced by “*though*,” “*although*.”

b) *Conditional* subordinate sentences are introduced by “*if*,” and sometimes “*provided*,” “*except*.”

289 After these conjunctions, the present tense is sometimes used without the *est*, *s* (or *es*), of its second and third person singular; and this is a sort of *subjunctive mood*.

“He *slays* me:” “*though* he *slay* me.”

“He *slays* me:” “*if* he *slay* me.”

290 The verb “*to be*,” has also a peculiar form for its *present* and *perfect tense* after these conjunctions.

a) Besides “*if it is* so,” I may say — what?
[*If it be* so.]

b) Besides “*if it was* so,” I may say — what?
[*If it were* so.]

c) *If I be*; *if thou* — what? [*beest*.]
If I were; *if thou* — what? [*wast*.]

291 May I say, “*if he likes*?” or *must* I say, “*if he like*?” [You may say “*if he likes*.”]

Which should *you* generally say? [*If he likes*.]

Yes: the using the *other* form expresses more *doubt*, and is seldom used in common language, unless when *doubt* is to be expressed.

292 Sometimes “*if*,” is left out before “*were*,” which must then stand first.

“*Were* it so, indeed, I should be much vexed:”
[= *if it were* so —]

Can I shorten the expression "*if it is possible*" 293 (and, if so, how?) in such a sentence as "Come to-morrow, *if it is possible?*" [Yes: Come, *if possible.*]

Right: this "*if possible,*" is an irregular, idiomatic abridgement. It is no full sentence or clause, as it now stands.

Exercise 36.

[Use the *subjunctive forms* of the verbs in crotchets; and change every *indicative* in italics into the *subjunctive*.]

1. Every man may find a proper employment 294 for his time, if he *pleases*. 2. A wicked thought stains the mind with guilt, *though* it never [*to ripen*] into action. 3. The rich, if he *has* no charity, is guilty. 4. Though he [*to urge*] me, yet more earnestly, I shall not comply, unless he [*to advance*] more forcible reasons. 5. *So* the doctrine [*to be*] but wholesome and edifying, though there should be a want of exactness in the manner of speaking or reasoning, it may be overlooked. 6. Whether he [*to succeed*] or not, his intention is laudable. 7. I will respect him, though he [*to chide*] me. 8. *If* he *were* but industrious, he might distinguish himself. [Get rid of "*if*."] 9. If he [*to grant*] this, you may easily prove the rest of your proposition. 10. Here, again, I am afraid they will allege the necessity there is for so able and faithful a steward to retrieve this desperate condition, if *it be* possible, by the utmost frugality.

Lesson 35.—*May, might; can, could; shall, should; will, would.*

Many conditional forms are made up of auxiliary 295 or helping verbs that signify *permission, duty*, and the like.

296 One of these is "*may*;" perfect, "*might*."

297 In a principal sentence, "*may*" mostly denotes *liberty* and *permission*.

"You *may* have a half-holiday to-day." "You *might* have a half-holiday, if you liked."

298 "*May*," denotes a *purpose* in *subordinate* sentences beginning with "*that*."

"I am come, that I *may* see it with my own eyes." What was the purpose I had in view when I went there? [That you might see it with your own eyes.]

"I *went* there, that I *might* see it with my own eyes." What was the purpose of my going there? [That you *might* see it—&c.]

299 In subordinate sentences beginning with "*that*," "*might*" is used (not "*may*") after the past tenses of the indicative.

I did it,	}	that I <i>might</i> —.
I was doing it,		
I had done it,		
I had been doing it,		

But,—

I do it,	}	that I <i>may</i> —.
I have done it,		
I shall do it,		

300 "*May* your shadow never be less!" When a Persian says this to any one, he means to utter a good *wish*, doesn't he? [Yes.]

Then "*may*," is used in *wishes*. So also "*might*." "*Might* it but prove no worse!"

301 "*Might*," in wishes, expresses some fear that the wish will not be realized.

302 When I say, "it *may* rain to-morrow," do I

mean that I *permit* it to do so, as I do when I (302) say, "he *may* have a ride to-morrow?" [No.]

What *do* I mean? [That perhaps it will rain—that *possibly* it may.]

Yes: in this way *may* denotes a *possibility* 303 granted by the speaker. "The ship *may* be in port at this moment:" that is, I *grant* it to be *possible* that she is there.

You should be very careful in marking this use, for such a sentence may be translated *differently* in other languages. To be safe, you must consider its *meaning*, and translate "it *may*," by "perhaps it will;" "it may happen that it will" (is, &c.). "I may be deceived," = *feri potest ut fallar*, in Latin: *il peut arriver* (que je me trompe), *peut-être* (je me trompe), in French.

What do I mean when I say "this *may* easily 304 be done?" [That it *can* easily be done.]

We may consider this meaning also a *possibility* 305 granted by the speaker; but when such a possibility is a *possibility of being done*, "*may*" may be considered nearly equivalent to "*can*," and to denote possibility.

I (*he, she, we, you, they*) may: 306
Thou — what? [*mayest*.]

Exercise 37.

[From the second column, add a *purpose* or *permission* to the 307 sentence in the first column.]

I hold my hands to the fire

All who are willing to grant me thus much,

If they did,

The *purpose*; *permission*.

to warm my fingers [a *purpose*].

to listen as long as they find me to their liking [*permission*].

to find something turning to their account [*possibility*].

(307) They	to exist in a greater variety than we commonly suppose [<i>a granted possibility</i>].
By machinery a small power	to be made to perform the works of a greater [<i>ability</i>].
I expose myself to danger	to save you [<i>purpose</i>].
It	to be no worse [<i>a wish</i>].
A man by help of a lever	to raise double the weight he can by his own hand [<i>ability</i> , or <i>granted possibility</i>].
I did this	to try its force [<i>purpose</i>].

Lesson 36.—*Can, could.*

308 “I *can* do it;” “I *cannot* do it:” here we have another auxiliary verb, or “*verb of mood*,” as such verbs are sometimes called.

309 What does “I *can* do it,” mean? [I have *power* to do it; I am able to do it.]

Yes: “*can*,” then, denotes *power, ability, possibility*.

310 I *can* now; I formerly — what? [*could*.]

The past tense of “*can*” is “*could*.” In conversation it would sound very stiff (wouldn’t it?) to say, “I *cannot* do it”—what would you say? [I *can’t* do it.]

Yes: what mark do you place between the *n* and the *t*, and why do you place it there? [An *apostrophe*, to show that a letter is omitted.]

311 Is there any such form for “*may*?” [Yes, “*mayn’t*.”]

In “*I can do it*,” what part of the verb is 312
 “*do*?” [The *infinitive*, with *to* omitted; “*I am*
able to do it.”]

“*You can but try*,” what does this mean? 313
 [You can only try: whether you will *succeed* or
 not is uncertain.]

Is it generally an *encouragement* to try? [Yes:
 meaning, “*try*, and you will have done *your*
part: having done *all that you can do*, no blame
 can be justly imputed to you.”]

“*I could think*,” means, “*I could do it*, if I 314
 were to allow myself,” or the like: it is used as
 a somewhat more doubtful expression of, “*I am*
inclined to think.”

“*I cannot but remark*,” what does this mean? 315
 [I cannot do any thing *but* remark: I cannot help
 remarking.]

Yes: and here again “*remark*” is the *infini-*
tive; as, indeed, the verb that follows “*can*,”
 “*could*,” always is.

“*I could almost think*,” does this mean any 316
 thing very different from “*I do almost think*?”
 [No.]

“*I could do*,” “*I could have done it*,” are often
 used with a conditional clause, understood or im-
 plied, “*I could do it*, if I pleased;” “*I could have*
done it, if I had pleased.”

Exercise 38.

[Use “*can*,” “*could*,” for the words in *italics*; or, if “*could*”
 is itself in *italics*, omit unnecessary words.]

1. After all I *could* ask you, if I pleased, one 317
 short question:—Do you love the day, or do you
 not? 2. I *am inclined to think* that it will prove
 advantageous to the people. 3. I *am constrained*

- (317) *to offer* my opinion, founded on a pretty long experience. 4. *All that I can do is* to remonstrate: whether my remonstrance will be listened to, I do not know. 5. The birds flatter themselves that they gained a complete victory, but I believe Mr. — *could have been able* to kill them both in another hour. 6. I wish *I were able* to make them more splendid than they. 7. He thinks he *is able to* outstrip all his competitors. 8. The only *thing to be expected of you* is to do your best: no body *will be able to* blame you fairly if you have done all you *are able*.

Lesson 37.—*Would, should.*

- 318 “John promised that he *would lend* me a book.”
John did not say, of course, “*I would lend you* the book:” what did he say? [I *will* lend you the book.]
- 319 Yes: if a person says, “I will do it,” in relating this you say:
“He *says* (that) he *will* do it. } “*That*” is gene-
“He *said* (that) he *would* do it. } rally left out.
- 320 So, with respect to “I *shall* go.”
“He *says* (that) he *shall* go.”
“He *said* (that) he *should* go.”
- 321 Then one use of “*would*,” “*should*,” is to take the place of “*will*” and “*shall*,” when they follow a *perfect* tense.
- 322 Let us try whether “*would*,” “*should*,” follow other past tenses.
“I *will* go: I *shall* go.”
“He was saying that he *would* go; *should* go.”
“He had said that he *would* go; *should* go.”

Now let us try which forms are used after the 323 *perfect definite* and the future.

When I ask, "what?" reply either "*will* (or *shall*) go;" or "*would* (*should*) go."

"I have said that I"——what? [*will* go; *shall* go.]

"I shall say that I"——what? [*will* go.]

Since "*would*," "*should*," in this use of them, merely represent "*will*," "*shall*," they are naturally used with the same difference of meaning.

A very frequent and extensive use of "*should*," 324 "*would*," is in *conditional* sentences.

In these sentences, the clause with "*if*" is the 325 *condition* or the *conditional clause*; the other the *principal clause*.

"If you *should* say this, you *would* say what is false."

In a sentence in which both clauses have 326 "*should*," nothing is said about the *possibility* or *probability* of the conditions being really done.

"If the sky *should* fall, we *should* catch larks."

We only say that if the condition *should be* realized, the conclusion would be realized also.

A curious form of the English verb, that has the 327 same meaning as "*should*" in conditional clauses, is "*were*" with the infinitive.

"If it *were to* rain, I could not go out" (=if it *should* rain, I could not go out).

In the passive voice, the "*to be*" is omitted 328 before the infinitive mood: "if it *were bought*" (= if it *should be bought*).

There is another form of conditional sentences, 329 where the condition has a *pluperfect* of the indicative, and the conclusion (or principal clause) *would have* —— (or *should have* ——) with a *past*

- (329) *participle*; which may be considered as the pluperfect of the subjunctive.

"If you *had done* so, you *would have suffered* for it:" this means, that you *did not do it*, and *therefore did not* suffer for it as you would have done if you had acted otherwise.

- 330 "Would (write)," &c., may follow a *present* tense when a clause with "*if*" (that is, a conditional clause) is omitted. "I am the only man whom he *would* believe" (that is, *if* I were to assert it).

- 331 When I say "*I should think*," do I mean any thing very different from "*I do think*?" [No.]

Right: the form is properly the *consequence* of a *conditional* clause, understood: "*I should like* to go;" that is, "*I should like* to go, *if I might*"—"if it could be managed," or the like. But in practice this has become little more than a *less positive* way of making an assertion with respect to one's own opinions, likings, &c.

Can I express, "you *ought* to do it," with "*should*?" [Yes: "you *should* do it."]

- 332 Hence "*should*" sometimes expresses *duty*. We may suppose, perhaps, that this also was a conditional form (you *should* do it if you would—if you *wished* to do right).

- 333 "*Would*," is the past tense of "*will*," as we have seen. It is used like "*should*" in conditional sentences.

- 334 "He *used* often to say," &c.: try to express this meaning by "*would*." [He *would* often say.]

Yes: in this sense it means "he *willed*," "he *was pleased* to say," "he *chose* to say."

- 335 "In questions, "*would*" is used much as

"*should*" is in assertions; that is to say, a *condition* is understood. "*Would* you like to go?" (that is, *if* you *might*, &c.); which is much the same as "*do* you like?"

"*Would* that it were so?" "*would*," is used in 336 this way in *wishes*. It is used without any *subject* expressed. "*Would* he were here!" = I *could wish* he were here.

"I wished them to go, but they *would not*." 337 Here "*would*," is the perfect of the verb "*to will*:" "they *willed* it not"—"they *did not will* (*did not choose*) to go."

It is important to observe this: in Latin we 338 should translate "*they would not*" by "*noluerunt*;" in French, "*ils n'ont pas voulu*."

Exercise 39.

[Change the *presents* in *italics* into *perfects*. Omit any conditional clause that is unnecessary; and use the proper forms of "(to) *will*," instead of forms from "*to please*," "*to choose*," "*to use*," &c.]

1. I verily believe that I am the only man alive 339 from whom such trifles [*to be welcome*] to a man like you. 2. He *says* that he will read it carefully. 3. He *used* to examine it frequently with great attention. 4. I *could wish* that I had a conservatory. 5. I *am pleased* with a frame of four lights, doubtful whether the few pines they contain will ever be worth a farthing. 6. Bring every thing that would oppose itself to your journey *if you did not bring it*. 7. If they *come*, they will be welcome. [Alter "*come*" to "*should come*."] 8. The king was devoted to the hierarchy; his subjects were puritans and *did not choose to bear* it. 9. Though at last he was obliged to give up many things, he *did not choose* to abolish episcopacy. 10. If that *be done*, his concessions will have a conciliating effect. [Use

- (339) “*should be done*,” or “*were done*.”] 11. I write because I would not, *if I could help it*, seem indifferent to the concerns of those I have so much reason to esteem and love. 12. I *expect* that nobody will be sorry for my death. [Use “*should expect*.”]

Lesson 38.—*Passive Verb. Ambiguous Forms.*

- 340 “When a person is *defending* me, then *I am defended* by that person:” of what *voice* and *tense* is “*I am defended*?” [*Passive voice, present tense.*]

- 341 If I say “*I am wounded*,” is the action of *wounding* me now *going on*? [No.]

If the action of *wounding* me is over when I say “*I am wounded*,” is *I am wounded* of the present tense, or of the perfect tense? [Of the *perfect tense.*]

- 342 Yes: thus the form “*I am*” with the past participle, is *ambiguous*. It is sometimes of the *present* tense, sometimes of the *perfect*.

It is necessary, therefore, that you should *think*, when a form of this sort comes before you.

- 343 “*The houses are built* :” is the action of *building* over? [Yes.]

The *houses* are in the *state* which is that of *built* houses; houses that exist in the *state* described by the participle “*built*.”

- 344 In what state am I, if *I am wounded*? [In the state of a *wounded* man.]

- 345 Yes: you must consider, then, whether a form of this kind describes an action as *going on*, either now or from time to time (habitually); or the *completed state* into which the action has brought the *object* of it.

"He *is shaved* by a barber every morning:" is 346 this the *present* or the *perfect*? [The *present* of an habitual action.]

"I shall be down in a few minutes: I *am shaved*—" is this the *present* or *perfect*? [The *perfect*.]

Yes: and it is very important to be able to distinguish the two meanings of this form: for they are translated differently into other languages. Thus:—

"I *am shaved* every day:" *tondeor* quotidie.

"I *am already shaved*:" *jam tonsus sum*.

But there is still a third tense, made up of the 347 present tense of "*to be*," and a past participle.

"John *is come*:" who is come? [John.]

Then "John" is the *agent* or *actor*—the *subject*. Is the verb "*is come*" passive? [No.] Is the action of his *coming* over? [Yes.]

Then of what voice and tense is (he) "*is come*?" [Of the *perfect active*.]

When I say "*a great feast is preparing*;" is the 348 feast *preparing* something else, or *being prepared*? [It is *being prepared*.]

Then of what voice and tense is the verb in the sentence "*a great feast is preparing*?" [Of the *present passive*.]

Yes: it is a very curious form, and is supposed 349 to have arisen from the old English *a-*, meaning *in* or *on*, which we still find in such adverbs as "*a-jar*," "*a-stern*," "*the door is a-jar*" = *is on jar*. So we say, "*he is gone a-hunting*," that is, "*on hunting*"—"on a *hunting expedition*." So, "*the feast is a preparing*," that is, "*the feast is in preparing—in preparation*."

The form can only be used in the third person, 350 and when the subject spoken of is *a thing*. We

(350) cannot say "*I am preparing,*" for "*I am being prepared.*"

351 The form is seldom used except in the case of the verbs to "*prepare*" and to "*build.*"

352 It is beginning to be more common to use the compound participle, "*being prepared,*" "*being built,*" &c. "The house *is* now *being furnished.*" These are *doubtful* forms, but very convenient. They do not, I believe, occur in good old writers.

Exercise 40.

[Write down each of the *verbal forms* printed in *italics*, and after each write its *voice* and *tense*.]

353 1. The affair *is finished*. 2. My faculties *are* quite *absorbed* in the passion for landscape drawing. 3. Even a king *is obliged* to give up many things he would wish to retain. 4. A breach *is made* in the outer wall. 5. His character *is* quite *spoilt* by this excessive vanity. 6. I am sorry to hear that your uncle *is offended* with me. 7. The money *is paid* into the bank. 8. I think it would be rather hard, if clergymen, who *are* not *allowed* to exercise any handicraft whatever, should be subject to such an imposition. 9. The impression your commendation had made upon the foolish part of me, *is* now *worn* off. 10. The thought is just and fine, but the two last lines *are* sadly *damaged* by the monkish jingle of "*peperit*" and "*reperit.*" 11. Our cousins *are gone*. 12. The rooks are already *building* their nests. 13. A new house *is building* on the common.

Lesson 39.—Division of Substantives.

354 What is a *rose*? [A *flower*.]
 What is a *daisy*? [A *flower*.]
 What is a *buttercup*? [A *flower*.]

Are *roses*, *daisies*, and *buttercups* like each other 355
in all respects, or only in *some*? [Only in *some*.]

A "*flower*," then, is the *common name* or *appellation* of a *class* of things that are *alike* in some considerable points, though unlike in others.

What is a *horse*? [An *animal*.] 356

What is an *elephant*? [An *animal*.]

What is a *mouse*? [An *animal*.]

"*Animal*," then, is another *common name* or *appellation* of a class of things that are alike in some considerable points, but unlike in others.

☞ Such names as denote *any* of the *individuals* 357
that are contained in a *class* of things, are called
common nouns or *appellatives*.

(*Tree, flower, soldier, house.*)

(a) *Common* because they are *common* to every individual comprised in the class. *Appellative* from *appellare* to call, because they are the names by which external objects are called.

"Give me *some rice*." "*Rice*" is the name of 358
a *substance* or *material*, is it not?

"Some *bread*," "some *honey*," "some *milk*,"
"some *gold*," "some *silver*." Here, again, "*bread*,"
"*honey*," "*milk*," "*gold*," "*silver*," are the names
of *materials* or *substances*.

I can speak and think of "*a flower*," meaning 359
a *particular, individual* flower; or *any* particular
flower; but I cannot either speak or think of "*a*
bread," "*a honey*," "*a gold*."

☞ Hence, in the names of *materials*, no indi-
viduals are distinguished.

Can I say "*three breads*," "*more honeys*," and 360
so on? [No.]

☞ Hence, as a general rule, *names of materials*
have no plural, because we do not distinguish dis-

(360) *tinct individuals* of these substances, but *certain quantities* of them.

361 There is, however, a sense in which *names* of *substances* or *materials* can be used in the *plural*.

“The *wines* of France are by some preferred to those of *Spain*.” is this correct?

“There is a heavy duty upon *French wines*.” is this correct?

362 ¶ Thus names of materials can be used in the plural when different *kinds* or *varieties* are spoken of. Here, however, we must be very careful not to go too far, as some such plurals are hardly allowable except in the “Trade Reports” of a newspaper.

363 What *property* is common to “*red cloth*,” “*red roses*,” and “*red paper*?” [*Redness*.]

364 If John, Richard, and Wilhelmina are all *virtuous*, what *property* or *character* is common to John, Richard, and Wilhelmina? [*Virtue*.]

a) “*Gold is heavy*,” “*lead is heavy*,” “*stones are heavy*.” what *property* is common to *gold*, *lead*, and *stones*? [*Heaviness* or *weight*.]

b) “The Thames is *broad*, the Rhine is *broad*, and the brim of a quaker’s hat is *broad*.” What *property* is common to the Thames, the Rhine, and the brim of a quaker’s hat? [*Broadness* or *breadth*.]

c) Can you think of *redness* without thinking of something that is *red*? [No.]

d) Can you think of *virtue* without thinking of some *action* that is *virtuous*, or some *actions* that are *virtuous*? [No.]

e) Can you think of *broadness* or *breadth* without thinking of something that is *broad*? [No.]

When I see many *red things*, and *put aside* all 365 the points in which they differ, to fix my mind upon the *one point* in which they agree, I get the notion of —? [*Redness or red.*]

The redness is no *one thing*, but a notion that I get, or *draw off* from many red things.

☞ Such *general notions* as describe *qualities*, 366 or *modes of action*, are called *abstract substantives*; from a Latin word, *abstrahere* to *draw away*, because the notions themselves are *drawn off*, as it were, from the mass of appearances presented to our view.

If you are told to *take a letter to the post before* 367 *twelve o'clock*, and do not do so, you are guilty of *negligence*.

a) Am I guilty of *negligence*, whenever I *neglect* any known duty?

b) Does not *negligence*, then, denote the property that belongs to every *omission* of duty? [Yes.]

c) Then is not *negligence* an “*abstract substantive*?” [Yes.]

d) Is not *ignorance* the property that belongs to all *not-knowing*? [Yes.]

e) But in the Liturgy we speak of “*negligences and ignorances*” as things for which we stand in need of pardon; what do we mean by these words? [*Particular acts of negligence and ignorance.*]

☞ We may then use *abstract substantives* in 368 the *plural*, to express *particular acts* agreeing with the *general notion*.

☞ We may also use the plural of *abstract nouns* in “*y*” to compare the *different degree* in which the abstract quality exists in different sub-

- (368) stances. "The respective *affinities* of lead and iron for manganese." "The specific *gravities* of oil and water."

369 Substantives that end in "y"
Prove mostly *abstract*, when you try
Their meaning: *abstract* too will be
"-Hood," "-head," "-ship," "-dom," with "-ness,"
"-th," and "t."

370 The names of persons and places are called *proper names*.

(a) Proper from being *proper*, that is *peculiar*, to the individual bearing the name. *John*, the *Thames*, *London*.

371 A *flock* of birds contains a great many *birds*, and yet is *one* flock.

What name denotes a *collection* of many bees?
[*A swarm*.]

What word denotes a *body* of horse-soldiers?
[*A troop*.]

372 ¶ Such substantives as "*swarm*," "*troop*," "the *parliament*," and so on, are called *collective nouns*, because each expresses a *collection* of many individuals.

Exercise 41.

[Substitute for each of the word or words in *crochets*, a substantive of the class named in the respective *crochets*.]

373 1. Nor is the case different in hunger and [*abstract subst.*], the pleasant feeling of health or the [*abstract subst.*] of distempers. 2. A man who after holding his right hand to the fire claps it upon his left, although active in the [*abstract subst.*¹] of one hand, is passive in feeling [*abstract subst.*²] with the other. 3. The mind is active in producing our [*plural*, to denote *particular acts* of

¹ The *abstract subst.* connected with the notion of *moving*.

² *Abstract subst.* connected with the notion of being *warm*.

the abstract notion of *thought*]. 4. [*Abstract subst.* (378) to denote the *being free*] is a great blessing, but one that is liable to abuse. 5. He defended with great [*abstract subst.*] the [*a plural substantive*, to denote *particular rights* that belong to free men] of the subject. 6. He comforted me in all my little [*acts of distress* :—express this notion by one word]. 7. Do you take any [*name of a substance*] or [*name of a substance*] with your beef? 8. I believe few persons, however well acquainted soever with [*proper name*] of a poet, can repeat the second line of his [*proper name* of a poem written by the above-named poet] without beginning the first. 9. The air was impregnated with the [*name of a particular kind of substance*] of Arabia. 10. Mount Blanc is covered with eternal [*name of a substance*]. 11. Are abstract notions parts of our mind, as the members are of our body, or enveloped by it like fish in [*name of substance*] ? 12. When men see [*name of substance*] melt in the [*name of substance*], they ascribe the melting to [*use an abstract subst.* to denote *want of power*] in the [*name of substance*] to resist the [*abstract subst.* connected with the notion of *acting*] of the [*name of substance*].

Lesson 40.—Cases.

“The *Queen’s* crown :” what notion have I 374 added to that of “*crown* ?” Its being the *Queen’s*, its belonging to the *Queen*.

To change *Queen* into *Queen’s*, what letter have 375 I added? [*s*.]

a) Between the *Queen* and the added *s*, I have placed a little tailed dot [thus’] *over the line* of letters.

- (375) *b*) This dot is called *a-pó-strö-phé*.

Who is the *possessor* of *Jackson's* field? [*Jackson.*]

Then *Jackson* stands to *field* in the *relation* of the *possessor*.

- 376 A word that stands in the relation of *possessor* to another word is said to be in the *genitive case*.

Thus *Queen's* is the genitive case of *Queen*.

- 377 Now listen to explanation of the word *case*.

a) When I say *Queen's*, I put *Queen* into¹ the slightly altered form that marks the possessor.

b) In many languages there are other *altered forms* to mark such notions as: "*to the Queen*;" "*with a hammer*;" "*from neglect*," and so on: and these *altered forms* are called the *cases* of the substantive, *Queen, hammer, neglect*.

c) These *cases*, each of them, mark *some relation* in which the notion expressed by the substantive stands to another notion (expressed by a *substantive*, or by a *verb* or *adjective*).

- 378 The simple form of the noun is called the *nominative case*².

(*a*) The *nominative* was placed at the head of the *cases*, though properly it is no case, but merely the word in its unaltered form.

- 379 ¶ The case in which *the object* stands after

¹ The apostrophe after the genitive plural is *absurd*, for an apostrophe marks that a vowel has been dropt, whereas no vowel ever followed the *s* of the plural to form a genitive. "The present practice is scarcely of a hundred years standing." (Hare.)

The Anglo-Saxon genitive of the second declension ended in *es* (*leaf, leafes*: *word, wordes*). Hence this is the only case we have kept, the *apostrophe* marking the omission of the *e*.

² From *nominare*, to name.

such a verb, for instance, as “*to strike*,” is called (379) the *accusative* case. And the *object* is placed in the *accusative* case, whenever we speak of a *person* or *thing doing* an action.

“ He bit the loaf :”	} the object in the “ <i>ac- cusative case</i> ” is ?
“ He broke his head :”	
“ He tore the leaf :”	
“ They hunted the fox :”	
“ The wind disperses the clouds :”	
“ The diamond cuts the glass :”	

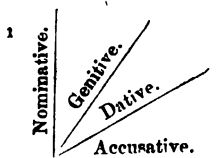
The word *case* means “*fall*,” the old Greek 380 grammarians wrote the nominative in an *upright* line ¹, and the other *cases* in lines inclined to it at certain angles, so that the forms of the genitive, accusative, &c., seemed to be *falling*, as it were, from the original word. Hence these forms were called the *oblique cases*.

English substantives have only one *case* formed 381 by *inflexion*. This case marks the *possessor*, and is called the *genitive*.

(a) *Inflectere* is to *bend in*; to *bend*. The noun was *bent*, as it were, into a fitness to denote the relation to be expressed.

The *genitive* is now formed by adding *s* with 382 an apostrophe [thus, ‘*s*] to the *nominative*.

In plural words ending in *s*, the genitive is 383 like the nominative, but it is now customary to mark an *apostrophe* after the *s*. “On eagles’ wings.”



- (383) (a) So in the phrase, "*for righteousness' sake*;" but we also say, "*for conscience sake*."

384 Should I say, "*Miss Edwards' school*," or "*Miss Edwards's school*," if the school is kept by Miss Edwards? [*Miss Edwards's*.]

Some writers, however, only mark the *apostrophe*, and write "*Miss Edwards' school*;" but they *cannot* speak so: for that form, as *spoken*, means the school of *Miss Edward*.

385 When I say "*Beaumont and Fletcher's plays*," whose *plays* do I speak of? [Those of *Beaumont and Fletcher*.]

When I say "*Howell and James's shop*," to whom does the shop belong? [To *Howell and James*.]

386 ¶ Thus, when two or more words are so closely joined together as almost to form one complex notion, the sign of the genitive is added to the last word, so as to put the whole phrase in the genitive. When I say:

a) "*good for the eyes*," the eyes stand in the relation of the *object* for which the thing spoken of is good.

b) "*he slew him with a sword*." A *sword* stands here in the relation of the *instrument* with which the action of *slaying* was done.

387 Is not "*the boy's father*," the father of the boy? [Yes.]

Then "*boy's*," and "*of the boy*," mean the same thing here?

388 "*Of the boy*," may be considered another form of the *genitive* case: at least it marks the relation of the *possessor*, as the *inflected* genitive does (381).

We shall see, however, hereafter, that the form with *of* has a wider meaning than the form with *'s*.

Exercise 42.

[In the following examples, put *inflected genitives* for those genitives with *of* that are in *italics*.]

1. When I left you I found myself sick of the 389
juice *of the grape*. 2. The door of the bed-chamber
of *the Dean* full of large chinks. 3. The
grate in the bed-chamber *of the ladies* is broken.
4. The maid *of the lady* is awkward and clumsy.
5. One great rat-hole is directly behind the pillow
of *Mrs. Johnson*. 6. It is a universal opinion,
that an old rusty iron chest in the shop *of a*
banker, strongly lockt and wonderfully heavy, is
full of gold. 7. He was not altogether devoid of
wit, till it was extruded from his head to make
room for the thoughts *of other men*. 8. Call the
hostler to hold the horse *of your master* whilst he
alights. 9. See that the girths *of your horse* be
loosed. 10. When you enter the inn, let the feet
of your horses be well washed. 11. We read that
the head *of an ass* was sold for eighty pieces of
silver. 12. His horse was near [the palace] *of*
St. James. 13. Will you take the place *of a maid*
of all work?

Lesson 41.—Cases of the Personal Pronouns.

“*I saw my uncle and he gave me an apple:*” 390
do *I*, *my*, and *me*, stand for the same person or
not?

What part of speech is “*I*?” and what is its
plural? [A pronoun. “*I*,” plural “*we*.”]

“*John’s hat:*” what “*case*” is *John’s*? [The 391
genitive (381).]

“*John’s hat*” is the hat belonging to *John*.

“*My hat*” is the hat belonging to *me*.

- (391) Since, when I say "*John's* hat," *John's* is in the *genitive*, should you guess "*my*" to be in the *genitive* or not? [Yes.]

Well: "*my*" is the *genitive* of "*I*."

- 392 Let us find the *genitive* case of "*we*."

The garden *belonging to John* is "*John's garden*."

The garden *belonging to me and my brother* is—you would not say, "*we's garden*," but what —? [*Our garden*.]

Then "*our*" is the *genitive* of "*we*."

Right: *we*, *genitive our*.

- 393 "*He struck JOHN*:" *John* is the *object* of this sentence.

"*He struck me*:" what is "*the object*" in this sentence? [*Me*.]

"*He saw John*:" (*John* the *object* in the *accusative*.)

"*He saw me and my brothers*:" what one word can I use for "*me and my brothers*?" [*He saw us*.]

"*Us*," then, is the *accusative* of "*we*."

- 394 But observe, *we*, *our*, *us*, would not tell *whom* I mean besides myself: it only means *myself and some others*.

- 395 We have not quite done with "*I*:" plural "*we*," yet:

I should say "*this is my hat*," but I should *not* say "*this hat is my*," but what? ["*This hat is mine*."]

So I should *not* say "*this garden is our*," but "*this garden is —*," whose? [*Ours*.]

Should I say :

396

a) "*My* is a good hat?" or "*mine* is a good hat?" [*Mine.*]

b) "*Our* is a large garden?" or "*ours* is a large garden?" [*Ours.*]

☞ Yes: the rule is that we use "*mine*," 397 "*ours*," (not "*my*," "*our*,") when we use the pronoun *without its substantive*.

It is *ours*.

It is *mine*.

Ours is —

Mine is —

☞ *Mine* is also used in old English, before vowels and silent *h*: "*mine* old friend."

We have now got a regular scheme for "*I*," 398 "*we*:"

Nominative.

Genitive.

Accusative.

I,

my, mine,

me.

We,

our, ours,

us.

"This is *John's* hat." } *John's, thy, and your,*
 "This is *thy* hat." } are in — what case?
 "This is *your* hat." } [The *genitive*.]

"He envies *John*." } *John, thee, you,* denote
 "He envies *thee*." } the *object*, and are in
 "He envies *you*." } — what case? [The
accusative.]

In old English, besides "*you* shall be destroyed," 399 we find "*ye* shall be destroyed." This *ye* is another form of the *nominative* plural of *you*.

"*Ye*" is seldom used now except in poetry: it is more common as the *nominative* than as the *accusative*.

In the same way you might easily find out the 400 forms of *he, she, it*.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Gen.</i>	<i>Acc.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Gen.</i>	<i>Acc.</i>
Thou,	thy,	thee,	you (ye),	your,	yours, you.
He,	his,	him,	} they, their, theirs, them.		
She,	her,	hers, her,			
It,	its,	it,			

Exercise 43.

- 401 [1. *Mary* and *Henry* are the speakers (first person).
 2. *Emily* and *William* are persons *spoken to* (second person).
 3. { *Lucy* and *John*,
Fanny and *Charles*, } are persons *spoken of* (third person).

Substitute *pronouns* for these names, wherever they occur in the following Exercise, and also for all words in *italics*.]

1. *Henry* is glad *William* thinks so favorably of *Henry's* *Huntingdon* acquaintance. *Henry's* *Huntingdon* acquaintance are indeed a nice set of folks and suit *Henry* exactly. *Henry* should have been more particular in *Henry's* account of Miss *Unwin* if *Henry* had had materials for a minute description. Miss *Unwin* is about eighteen years of age, rather handsome and genteel. In the company of Miss *Unwin's* mother, Miss *Unwin* says little; not because Miss *Unwin's* mother requires it of Miss *Unwin*, but because Miss *Unwin* seems glad of that excuse for not talking. 2. *Fanny* behaved to *Henry* with as great ease and address as if *Fanny* and *Henry* had been old acquaintance. 3. *Emily* knows what a shy fellow *Henry* is. 4. *Fanny* looks upon *John* as a simpleton. 5. This slate is *William's*. 6. These trees are *Mary's* and *Henry's*. 7. *John* and *Henry* have lost the ball *which-belongs-to-John-and-Henry*. [Alter this sentence (1) to the form which *John* would use; (2) to the form which their brother *Charles* would use.] 8. We cannot find *the* ball *which-belongs-to-us*. 9. The gold has lost a portion of *the-gold's* weight. 10. This knowledge is chiefly interesting for *this-knowledge's* own sake. 11. This discipline is necessary for a child like *the-child-belonging-to-you*. 12. These studies, as far as *these-studies* tend to feed vanity or self-conceit, are evil. 13. *Mr. Wordsworth* is very sensible of this honour, and let *Mr. Wordsworth* be permitted to add, that the being deemed worthy to succeed *Mr. Words-*

worth's revered friend Mr. Southey, enhances the (401) pleasure *Mr. Wordsworth* receives upon this occasion. [Alter this to the form Mr. Wordsworth would himself use.]

Lesson 42.—Possessive Pronouns. Personal and Adjective Pronouns.

In such a sentence as “*John* broke *John's* 402 stick,” what pronoun can I use for *John's*? [The pronoun *his*. “*John* broke *his* stick.”]

“*I* did this.” Who did it? Find the *subject* 403 of the sentence.

Thou art mad.

What is the *subject* of this sentence?

He is learned.

She is beautiful.

It is dark.

We are in good time.

You are careless.

They are fond of novelty.

☞ These pronouns are called *substantive pro-* 404 *nouns*, because they represent (or stand' for) the names of some *person* or *thing*.

Since the same pronouns, with the exception of 405 ‘*it*,’ stand for the names of *persons*, they are also called *personal pronouns*.

When I say “*John* has broken *his* cross-bow,” 406 who is the *possessor* of the cross-bow?

So if I say “*his* hat,” “*our* garden,” “*your* (*her, their*) books;” the pronouns *his, our, your, her, their* mark *whose* the thing or things in question are; they *imply* the notion of a *possessor*.

We have seen that *my, his, her, your, our, &c.*, 407

- (407) are *genitive* cases. The *genitive* case properly denotes *possession*, and many grammarians call *my, his, &c.*, *possessive pronouns*.

At all events, they answer to the *possessive pronouns* of other languages: "my brother," *mon frère* (in French); *frater meus* (in Latin).

- 408 If I say "*good* boys," I speak of 'boys' who are '*good*.'

If I say "*his* boys," I speak of 'boys' who are '*his*.'

<i>Black</i> sheep.		<i>Our</i> sheep.
<i>Red</i> apples.		<i>Their</i> apples.
<i>A bay</i> poney.		<i>Your</i> poney.

- 409 Since *my, thy, his, her, our, your, their* are added to substantives, and affect their meaning in the same way that *adjectives* do, they are called *adjective pronouns*.

Hence—

a) "*Personal* pronouns" are "*substantive* pronouns."

b) "*Possessive* pronouns" are "*adjective* pronouns."

Exercise 44.

- 410 [Use *possessive pronouns* (or *genitives*) for names or words in *italics*. Add "*is*," "*are*," "*was*," "*were*," &c., when necessary.]

1. I want the gun *belonging to me*. 2. This gun *belongs to me*. 3. Henry and William want the weekly pay *belonging to them*. 4. George and I want the books *belonging to us*. 5. George and I say that these books *belong to us*. 6. You and Henry claim what *does not belong to you*. 7. You and Henry must change the shoes *you have on*. 8. She must lend me the needle-case *belonging to her*. 9. This needle-case *does not belong to her*.

Lesson 43.—Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Relative Pronouns.

When I speak of "*this* book" and "*that* book," 411
which do you suppose to be the nearer to me, *this*
or *that*? [*This*.]

If I were calling upon you to look at *the books* 412
in my hand, I could not say, "*look at this books*:"
what must I say? [*Look at these books*.]

So, if I were *pointing out* several books at a distance from me, I should not say "*look at that books*," but ——. [*Look at those books*.]

☞ "*This*," "*that*," have for their plural forms 413
"*these*," "*those*;" and are called *demonstrative*¹
pronouns; that is, *pointing-out* pronouns, because
one may suppose the speaker *pointing out*, as it
were, the object or objects meant.

If I wished to ask, "who was at the door," I 414
should say—what? [*Who is at the door?*]

Should I say, "who do I see?" or, if not, what 415
should I say? [*Whom do I see?*]

a) In "*I see him*," *him* is the *object* in the
accusative.

b) In "*I see—whom?*" is not "*whom*" also
the *object* in the *accusative*? [*Yes*.]

Can you use any form of *who*, to ask more
shortly "*to whom* does this hat belong?" [*Yes*:
"*whose* hat is this?"]

Whose is the *genitive marking possession*: so 416
that we have *who*, *genitive whose*, *accusative whom*.

It would be right (would it not?) to say, "*who* 417
are those men?" "*whose* voices did I hear?"

¹ Note 4, English Grammar, p. 19.

- (417) "*whom* did he send" (though I knew that he sent several)? [Yes.]

Then *who*, *whose*, *whom*, are the proper forms for the plural, as well as for the singular.

- 418 "*Who*," as so used, is called an *interrogative*¹ pronoun; that is, "an *asking* pronoun," or "a *questioning* pronoun."

- 419 *Of two* or more persons, what should I say, instead of "*who* of them did it?" ["*Which* of them did it?"]

- 420 "*Which* did it," means *which of several*: "*what* did he do," means *what* is the thing that he did.

- 421 "*What flowers* do you call these," asks for the *name* or *sort* of the flowers.

"*What*" denotes what *sort*, *class*, *kind* of things or persons is meant.

"*What*" is an *interrogative* pronoun, properly used as an *adjective*, but often with the substantive omitted.

"*What thing* is this that thou hast done?"

"*What* is this that thou hast done?"

- 422 1. *Which* of them did it?
2. *Whose* deed is it?
3. *Whom* do you accuse of doing it?"

Which, *whose*, *whom*, is also (418) an *interrogative* pronoun: it is used when we wish to enquire about *one* out of a number.

- 423 "*Which* colour do you prefer?" *Which* is here used as an adjective with *colour*; and is an adjective *interrogative* pronoun.

¹ From *inter-rogare*, to ask.

The man <i>who</i> saw me.	The men <i>who</i> saw me.	424
The man <i>whose</i> hat this is.	The men <i>whose</i> hats are here.	
The man <i>whom</i> I saw.	The men <i>whom</i> I saw.	

Do the *who*, *whose*, *whom*, here help to ask any thing about the *man* or *men* in question? [No.]

"The man *who* saw me—." *Who* did see me? [The man.]

Hence "*who*" relates to the man I am speaking of.

a) So in "the *man* (or *men*) *whose* children do 425 so and so," "*whose*" relates to the *man* or *men* in question.

b) In "the *man* (or *men*) *whom* I saw," "*whom*" relates to the *man* or *men* in question.

So in "the *iron which* I saw," "*which*" relates to the *iron* in question.

From this office of *referring* or *relating* to some- 426 thing before *spoken of*, "*who*" and "*which*," in this use of them (418), are called "*relative pronouns*."

"*Who*" is used of persons, and only as a *sub-* 427 *stantive*: I cannot say, "*who man*," "*who men*."

"*Which*" is used of persons or things ("*which man*," "*which corn*"), and is used as an *adjective*, though the substantive it belongs to is usually omitted.

Note: "*The corn which I saw*," means "*the* 428 *corn*, which corn *I saw*."

"*The man whom I saw*," means "*the man*, which man (*not whom man*) *I saw*."

☞ Since *who* and *which* are sometimes *ques-* 429 *tion-asking pronouns* (*interrogative pronouns*, 418),

(429) sometimes *relative* pronouns, you must take care to *distinguish* one from the other.

430 In such a sentence as, "*the thing which I long for*," instead of "*which*" I can use—what pronoun? [The thing *that* I long for.]

Can I say "*the things that I long for*?" [Yes.]

Then, in this sense, "*that*" has not plural "*those*," but is either *singular* or *plural*.

431 Observe, then, that "*that*" is sometimes a *relative* pronoun. What else is it? [413.]

432 In such a sentence as "*any man who thinks so, is mistaken*," is there any one word which you can put for *any man who*? If so, what word is it? [*Whoever* or *whosoever* thinks so.]

433 Can I say, he "*banishes whoever he pleases*?" [No.]

What must I say? [He banishes *whomever* or *whomsoever* he pleases.]

	Nom.	Gen.	Acc.
434	Whoever	whosoever	whomsoever.
	Whosoever	whosoesoever	whomsoever.
	Whichever	{ of whichever whosoesoever }	whichever.

435 "*Whoever*," "*whichever*," "*whosoever*," "*whosoever*," are *indefinite relative* pronouns, meaning (*indefinitely*) *any one who* (whose, whom); *every one which* (whose, which).

436 "*Whoso* doeth these things, shall never fail:" *whoso* means *whoever*, but is now all but gone out of use.

"*Whatever* you say," "*whatever* pains I take," '*whatever*' is also an *indefinite* relative pronoun.

437 "*What*" is sometimes used for "*that which*."

Thus: "I am sorry for *what* you said"—that is, (437)
 "for *that which* you said."

Exercise 45.

[Learn the list of *demonstrative*, *interrogative*, and *relative pronouns*, in "the Companion."]

[Insert a pronoun in each of the gaps of the following Exercise ; and for each *parenthesis* substitute a pronoun of the kind mentioned. Also substitute a pronoun for words in *italics*.]

1. The longer I live here, the better I like the place, and the people (*relative pron.*) belong to it.
2. It is not necessary to undergo the same afflictions (*relative pron.*) I have undergone.
3. These are the reflections with (*relative pron.*) I comfort myself.
4. The history of (*demonstrative pron.*) things (*relative pron.*) have prevented my scribbling would not only be insipid, but extremely voluminous.
5. The lady in (*relative pron.*) house I live, is an excellent person.
6. I had no faith (*indefinite relative pron.*).
7. (*Indefinite relative pron.*) may assert it, there is no truth (*indefinite relative pron.*) in the report.
8. Such faults as *the faults I have just mentioned*, are weeds of the richest soil.
9. I never could reap any service in (*demonstrative pron. of the object further off*) cases from (*demonstrative pron. of the nearer object*) pretended friend.
10. This raises an uneasy want, *and this want* grows greater and greater by degrees.
11. After *that which* has been said, nobody will expect me to do (*demonstrative pron. of nearer object*).
12. (*Interrogative adjective pron.*) has happened?

Lesson 44.—Reflexive Pronouns.

"I hit *myself* with my own ball;" the action of 439 *hitting* was here done upon *myself*.

Instead of saying *to you, Henry*, "*Henry will* 440

- (440) *hurt Henry,*” I should say, “*you will hurt — whom?*” [Yourself.]

And if I were talking to you about Mary, I should not say, “*Mary will injure Mary* by such conduct,” but “*Mary will injure — whom?*” [Herself.]

And so, not “*John will injure John,*” but “*John will injure — whom?*” [Himself.]

Not “*this fault will cure this fault,*” but “*this fault will cure — what?*” [Itself.]

So: “We shall hurt —?” [Ourselves.]
 “You will hurt —?” [Yourselves.]
 “They will hurt —?” [Themselves.]
 “One should fear —?” [Oneself.]

- 441 ‘To reflect,’ means to *bend* or *turn back*.

‘*Reflex*’ means that which is *bent* or *turned back*.

And these pronouns are called reflexive pronouns, because the *action* is, as it were, *bent* or *turned back*, upon the *person acting*.

- 442 In “*myself,*” “*thyselves,*” “*ourselves,*” “*yourselves,*” I add *self*, plural *selves*; to *my, thy, our, your*. Of what case are *my, thy, our, your*? [They are *genitives*.]

- 443 In “*himself,*” “*themselves,*” I add *self, selves*; to *him, them*. Of what case are *him, them*? [They are *accusatives*.]

- 444 Thus for the first and second persons, we add *self, selves* to the *genitive*; for the third person to the *accusative*. I say nothing of *herself*, because *her* is either *genitive* or *accusative*.

Hence it is better to write “*oneself,*” than “*one’s self,*” as some people do.

How can I make a *genitive case* for *myself*, *himself*, &c. ? 445

Can I say, "He consults *himself's* own best interests?" [No.]

What should I say? [*His own* best interests.]

So "I, with *my own* hand," and so on. Thus 446 we use the genitives *my*, *our*, *thy*, *thine*, *his*, *her*, *their*, &c. with the adjective *own*, which means *peculiar, belonging to a person, owned by the person.*

In the *nominative*, these pronouns *press* the *identity* of the subject. "I did it myself:" that is, *I* and *no other* person.

Exercise 46.

[Put a reflexive pronoun in the gaps of the following Exercise, and substitute one for each word or words in italics.]

1. Don't let the waiter carry the bill at once to 447 your master, but first examine it carefully —.
2. Ask what is in the house, and be sure to see it —.
3. Many young ladies plume — on always saying *nearly* for *near*.
4. I will see the sheets well aired —.
5. Let him choose — a warm room.
6. He hid — under — bed.
7. One does not like to force — upon a stranger.
8. Let us see — horses fed.
9. She has put — necklace into the cream-jug.
10. I shall warm — at the fire.

Lesson 45.—Reciprocal and Indefinite Pronouns.

"They love each other;" whom does *each* love? 448
[*Each* loves the other.]

Hence "*they love each other*" means, "*they* 449 *love:—each* loves the *other*." So "*they love one another*" means, "*they love:—one* loves *another*."

- (449) But in practice, "*each other*," "*one another*," are treated as if they were simple pronouns, "*each-other*," "*one-another*." Gen. *each-other's*, *one-another's*.

450 Two people, A and B, act towards each other *reciprocally*, when A does to B what B does to A.

☞ *Each-other*, *one-another*, are said to be *reciprocal* forms. They are the forms with which *we* supply the place of *reciprocal* pronouns.

Exercise 47.

[Fill up the gaps with a *reciprocal form*.]

- 451 1. It was now that the strength and sincerity of Cowper's attachment for Mrs. Unwin were tried and proved. Their relative situation to — had been reversed. 2. We must bear — complaints. 3. We must help —, if we are ever to make satisfactory progress. 4. They fall to abusing — heartily. 5. Let us not envy —; we cannot be Christians if we do.

Lesson 46.—Pronominal Adjectives.

Such, the *same*.

- 452 "*Such* fruit:" that is, fruit of the kind I am describing or *pointing* out.

☞ *Such* may therefore be considered as a demonstrative pronoun, that points out the *kind*.

- 453 "Have you ever seen a fish *so* large as this?" How can you express this with "*such*" instead of "*so*?" [Have you ever seen *such* a large fish as this?]

Where have you placed the indefinite article '*a*'? [Between '*such*' and the adjective '*large*']

- 454 Can I say "*such a man*?" [Yes.]

You see then, that *such* precedes the indefinite (454) article, whether an adjective be used or not.

I can say either "*showers so moderate*," or "*such moderate showers*:" "*a boy so tall*," or "*such a tall boy*:" "*such disinterested conduct*," or "*conduct so disinterested*:" what part of speech is 'so'? [An *adverb*.]

What part of speech is 'such'? [An *adjective*.] 455

When I say "*such proud boasting*," I use *two adjectives* with *boasting*: but this is *quite good English*. I mean, *proud boasting* of this kind¹.

Does the 'such' then describe the *kind* of '*boasting*' or the *kind* of "*proud boasting*?" [The *kind* of *proud boasting*: *proud boasting* of the same *kind*—the same *degree* of *insolence*,—as *this* "*proud boasting*."] 456

If I were to say, "I told him to pay *me on such* *a day*," what should I mean? [That I told him to pay me on some particular day, which I don't think it necessary to mention now.]

In the same way we may say, "*such and such* things." "A law forbidding *such or such* an action."

Instead of 'such,' we sometimes, mostly in the 457 language of common conversation, say "*such like*," or "*suchlike*."—" *Apes, parrots, and suchlike animals*."

"I will do this for you, if you will do *the same* 458 for me next week." This thing and the same thing are *identical*, are they not? [Yes.]

"*The same*" is almost a pronoun:—we may con- 459 sider it a pronominal adjective, that marks out an object by stating that it is *identical* with another.

¹ See 72, c, in "English Grammar for Classical Schools."

Exercise 48.

[In the following Exercise use *such* for “(of) *this kind*,” “of *this degree*,” &c., for the words included in parentheses, or act according to the direction given at the end of the sentence.]

- 460 1. When Miss Gawky lolls out at window for hours together, she sees (*several particular persons whom I need not name*) pass by. [Use *such*.]
 2. This would be impossible if the word stood for this thing in that sentence, and also for this thing in this sentence. [Instead of using “this thing” twice over, use *the same*.]
 3. Did any man ever display skill (of this degree)?
 4. I never met with *so* ignorant a person. [Use *such*.]
 5. If any thoughts (*of this kind*) rove in his fancy, their roving is accidental.
 6. I shall arrange them under classes as I shall judge most convenient.
 7. I need not tell you that *a life of this kind*, is consistent with the utmost cheerfulness.
 8. If you can make me up a packet *of this kind*, I will take care of it.
 9. You know I am a stranger here: all *strangers* are suspected characters unless they bring their credentials with them. [Use *such*.]
 10. He used to come home every evening in the most cheerful spirits, telling me he had conversed with *this person or that*, on the subject of my pension. [Use *such*.]
 11. I thank him, that he has given me *so* deep a persuasion of this awful truth.
 12. I fear the effect of a stroke like *this* upon *so* tender a frame. [Use *such*.]
 13. I have seldom witnessed intense energy of purpose *of this kind*.

Lesson 47.—Definite Numerals.

- 461 “She bought two shawls, and five yards of pink satin.”

How many shawls? [Two.]

How many yards of satin? [Five.] (461)

Two and *five*, then, are numerals, which answer to the question, *how many?*

☞ Such numerals as answer to *how many?* are 462 *cardinals*: *one, two, three, four, &c.*

They are called *cardinals*, from a Latin word, meaning "*hinge*," because they are the *principal* numerals: those on which the others *depend*, and on which they *turn*, if one may say so.

So also a *Cardinal* is the name of one of the *first* Bishops (that is, one of the most elevated in rank at Court) in the Roman Catholic Church.

"This is the *third* of March:" what *place* 463 amongst the days of March does *to-day* occupy? [The *third* place.]

"I shall see him, I hope, on the *fifth* of September:" what place amongst the days of September does the day on which I hope to see him occupy? [The *fifth* place.]

☞ Such numerals as express *what place* in a 464 series the thing we are speaking of occupies, are called *ordinals*: *first, second, third, &c.*

They are called *ordinals*, because they relate to the *order* in which the things in question stand, or are reckoned.

"The Pope wears a crown that looks like *three* 465 *crowns together*:" this is called a *triple* crown.

"To pay *threefold*," is to pay three times as much as any sum before mentioned or alluded to.

☞ "Numerals in *fold*," represent, as it were, a 466 length, say of cloth, *folded* so many times. If a piece of cloth five yards long were *folded* into *five* equal portions, each *fold* would contain a *yard*;

(466) and the *five folds* would be five yards, and this would be the *five-fold* of one yard.

467 Since five-fold is one *multiplied* by five: such numbers as five-fold are called *multiplicatives*.

468 For *two, three*, we have the *multiplicative* numerals, *double*, and *treble* or *triple*. Four, five, &c., have either the forms *four-fold, five-fold*, or forms in *-uple* (derived from the Latin), *quadruple, quintuple*.

These *multiplicatives* are not very common: they are mostly used as *substantives*.

469 I could not say "the *twentieth-fifth* year:" what should I say? [The *twenty-fifth* year.]

And what should I say instead of "the *five hundredth and sixtieth-seventh*?" [The *five hundred and sixty-seventh*.]

470 In *compound* numerals of the ordinal series, it is only the last number that takes the ordinal termination.

471 Tell me that you wish you had "*twenty four* rabbits," but put "*four*" before "*twenty*." [I wish I had *four* and twenty rabbits.]

Can you put *four* and *twenty* before a *hundred*, to express "*a hundred and twenty four*?" [No.]

472 When you get beyond a *hundred*, the smaller number is always placed last.

473 "The sun has long been set,
The stars are out by *twos and threes*,
The little birds are piping yet
Among the bushes and the trees."—Wordsworth.

So I can say, "we will go *two and two*."

"You must go in *couples*:" how can you express this without using *couple*? [You must go *two and two* together.]

474 Such combinations as "*two and two*," "*two at*

a time," "by twos," distribute a whole number (474) into separate portions. They are *distributive forms*.

(☞ A few numerals are *substantives*: a *unit*, a *pair*, a *couple*, a *dozen*, a *score*, a *hundred*, a *thousand*, a *million*, &c.

(a) After numerals, the words *pair*, *couple*, and *dozen*, do not always take the plural form: "six *pair* of shoes," &c.

This irregularity is occasioned by the wish to 476 get an *easily* pronounced form for common expressions. It would now seem too *precise* to say in common conversation, "*six pairs of stockings*," instead of "*six pair of stockings*;" "*six dozens of apples*," instead of "*six dozen apples*," or "*six dozen of apples*"¹.

"A *hundred* altars:" is *hundred* an *adjective* or 477 a *substantive*? [A *substantive*.] Yes: it means "a hundred of altars," just as "a *dozen* miles" means a "dozen of miles."

Exercise 49. .

[Write out in words the numerals that occur in the following examples.]

1. I saw him last on the 29th of April. 2. This 478 great earl had 563 retainers with him. 3. The library contained 20,238 volumes. 4. Will you reach me down the 5th volume on the 3rd shelf. 5. You shall pay him 5 pounds 10 shillings and 8 pence. 6. I return on the 16th. 7. This is the 50th anniversary. 8. To-day is the 800th anniversary of the foundation of Trinity College, Cambridge. 9. If I could but obtain the 40th part of what is due to me, I should be a rich man.

¹ It is better, however, not to say "*six foot long*," because "*six feet long*" is as easily pronounced, and very commonly used.

- (478) 10. You shall pay him *five times the original sum* [use a numeral in — *fold*]. 11. I have purchased 36 knives [in 36 are *three twelves*, and twelve are a *dozen*; use the word *dozen* in writing down this sentence]. 12. We are now to thank you for six fine soles. [Instead of *two* soles, we say a *pair* of soles.—Use *pair*.]

Lesson 48.

Numerals.—1. Indefinite Numerals.

- 479 “Give me *six* walnuts:” *six* denotes a *number*, does it not? [Yes.]

- 480 “Give me *some* walnuts:” by *some* walnuts, do I mean *more* walnuts than one? [Yes.]

I must mean a *number* of walnuts, then; some number: but do I say definitely *what number*? do I say *how many* walnuts? [No.]

- 481 Adjectives that denote *number*, are called *numerals*, or numeral adjectives. *Two, five, eight*, and so on, that denote a *particular* number, are called *definite numerals*.

- 482 *Many, some, several*, and so on, that do not denote a *definite*, but an *indefinite* number, are called *indefinite numerals*.

- 483 “Give me *some* walnuts,” here I mean a *number* of walnuts: if I say, give me *some* beef, do I mean *any number* of *beeves*? [No.]

What do I mean? [*Some quantity* of beef.]

- 484 Some indefinite *numerals* denote *quantity* only: some either *number* or *quantity*.

[Say after each of the following sentences whether *number* is meant, or *quantity*.]

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|
| 485 <i>Some</i> grains of corn. | <i>Some</i> corn. |
| <i>No</i> ears of corn. | <i>No</i> corn. |
| <i>All</i> men. | <i>All</i> gold. |

<i>All</i> the men.	<i>All</i> the gold.	(485)
Have you <i>any</i> pens?	Have you <i>any</i> cloth?	
Have you men <i>enough</i> ?	Have you cloth <i>enough</i> ?	

"He pays me a visit *every* day:" by "*every*" 486
I mean *all*, taken *one* by *one*.

"*Every* man," or "*every* one," is right: but
can I say "to *every* of you?" [No.]

Is "*every*" then used as an adjective, or as a
substantive? [As an adjective.]

Can I say "*each* man," "*each* one?" [Yes.]

Can I say, "I will give one 'to each of you?'"
[Yes.]

Is "*each*" then used as an adjective, or as a 487
substantive, or as both? [As both; that is, either
as substantive or as adjective.]

"You may take *either* of them:" I mean — 488
do I not?—that you may take this or *that* at your
pleasure.

"Six men were placed *on either* side of the 489
river:" what do I mean? [On each side; on
both sides.]

In this sense, "*either*" means, *each without any* 490
difference. A poet says:—

"Seven times the sun hath *either* tropic
viewed," hath viewed one tropic as well as the
other. This is rather a *poetical* use of "*either*."

"I have done it *many a time*:" is this good 491
English? [Yes.]

Can I say, "*many a* man," "*many a* plodding 492
solitary student," and so on? [Yes.]

In this way "*many*" is in the *singular*. When
I say "*many* men," it is in the *plural*.

493 Though I can say "*many men*," "*few men*," I cannot say "*few a man*," like "*many a man*." Is there any way in which I can use "*few*" with the indefinite article *a*? [Yes; a *few men*, a *few things*.]

494 Do these two forms mean the same thing?—

a) "*Few men* can do this."

b) "*A few men* can do this." [No.]

What do I mean, when I say, "*few men can do this*?" [That but a '*few*' do it.]

495 If I say "you will get *few men* to believe this," I mean *very few*, *if any*: you will get *hardly any*, but certainly *not many*.

If I say "*you will get a few men to believe this*," I mean that you will get a *few at least*: you will certainly *get some*.

496 Thus "*a few*" means *some, though perhaps not many*.

But "*few*" means *but few, if any*.

497 The difference is nearly the same between *little* and *a little*.

"He took *little pains*," means—what? [He did not take *much pains*, if any.]

"He took *a little pains*," means—what? [He took some pains, though perhaps not much.]

498 a) "This is *my paper*." "This paper is *mine*."

b) "I have *no paper*." "As to paper, I have *none*."

Thus *no*, *none*, differ like *my*, *mine*, *our*, *ours*, &c. How does *mine* differ from *my*? [See 397.]

499 Instead of "*some good thing*," I can say, "*something good*," and so I can say *any thing*, *no thing*, *every thing*.

Nothing is nearly always written or printed as 500 one word; and *something, anything, everything* very often, indeed generally, are.

They may be considered numeral substantives, denoting *quantity*.

“*Something evil*,” is *something that is evil*, or *something of evil*.

And so “*a little*” is used as a substantive, with ‘*of*’ left out after it. “*A little corn*” is *a little of corn*.

Can you express “*I saw about twenty of them*, 501 *or more*,” with ‘*some*’? [I saw *some* twenty of them, or more.]

Use ‘*some*’ for ‘*about*’ in the sentence, “*I saw him about six months ago*.” [I saw him *some* six months ago.]

Exercise 50.

[Place an *indefinite numeral* in each of the *gaps* left in the following Exercise.]

1. Our larger actions consist of — single 502 acts. 2. We have not — good foundations for that opinion. 3. I will take as — care as possible. 4. He was flattered into the belief that he had — extraordinary to exhibit. 5. The two operations are so alike, that the Greeks used the same term to express them —. 6. It needs — recommendation from — else to give it weight. 7. You may remember — instances of this kind. 8. I will take — more care next time. 9. He is able to do — good or hurt us. 10. This deserves our regard if — other consideration interfere. 11. You may move a man almost — way by touching his point of honour, if you can but find out where it lies. 12. I have explained this to you *about* five times already. [Use *some* for *about*.]

Lesson 49.—Indefinite Numerals (continued).

- 503 “All the vessels were of gold: there were *none* of silver.” There were *no* what? [No vessels.]

Thus, though *none* means *no one*, we can use it in the plural. “*There were none.*” “*there was no one.*”

- 504 “Are you *sufficiently* warm?”

Instead of “*sufficiently*” use “*enough.*” [Are you warm *enough*?]

Sufficiently is — what part of speech? [An adverb.]

- 505 Then *enough*, when used with an adjective, would seem to be an adverb.

“Have you *sufficient* room?” Use *enough*. [Have you room *enough*?]

- 506 “*Sufficient*” is — what part of speech? [An adjective.]

“Have you *a sufficiency* of water?” Use *enough*. [Have you water *enough*?]

- 507 Well: since *enough* is used like *sufficiently*, *sufficient*, and *sufficiency*, is it an *adverb*, an *adjective*, or a *substantive*? [I don’t know. One should think it is all the three.]

- 508 This difficulty has puzzled wiser heads than ours.

Dr. Johnson says, “It is not easy to determine whether this word be an adjective or *adverb*; perhaps, when it is joined to a substantive, it is an adjective, of which *enow* was the *plural*. In other situations it seems an *adverb*; except that after the verb *to have*, or *to be*, either expressed or understood, it may be accounted a substantive.”

- 509 As, however, indefinite numerals—for instance, *some* (*of it*); *any* (*of it*), &c.—are very often used as *substantives*, we will consider *enough* as an

adjective, that is often used *substantively* and (509) *adverbially*, and has the peculiarity of *following* the substantive or *adjective* with which it is connected.

That an *adjective* should be used as an *adverb*, 510 or *adverbially*, is common enough: do you ever talk of a *redly hot* poker? [No; a *red hot* poker.]

Can I say "*others men think so?*" [No.] 511

Can I say "*others think so?*" [Yes.]

☞ Then *other* makes a plural "*others*," when it is used without a substantive.

"I saw him *a day or two ago*;" "*a few days* 512 *ago*;" "*some days ago*." Can you express the same notion with *other*? Try. [Yes: "I saw him the other day."]

Then "*the other day*," means *some day* before *this*, and *not long before it*.

Do you think "*one*" has any plural? [I think 513 it can't have; because more than *one* would be *two*, *three*, or some other number.]

Let us try whether there is *no sense* in which 514 "*one*" may have a *plural*. "Will you take the long *arrows* or the short *arrows*?" Try to ask this question without using '*arrows*' *twice*. [Will you take the long *arrows* or the short *ones*?]

Yes: then you have used '*ones*' to represent 515 *arrows*. In this way, when *one* is employed to *represent* a substantive already named, it may have a *plural*. So also, when '*ones*' means "*persons*," in such a phrase as, "the great *ones* of the earth;" and so on.

Try to use *one* in the following sentences, in- 516 stead of *I*, *my*, *our*, *ours*; *people*, *a man*.

- (516) *We* ought never to steal. [*One* ought never to steal.]
A man's first attempt is often unsuccessful. [*One's* first attempt is often unsuccessful.]
We are often tempted to despair. [*One* is often tempted to despair.]

- 517 When I say "*we* must not steal," do I generally mean *particular persons* (*myself* and some others) must not steal, or that *men generally* must not? [That men generally must not.]

"*One*" is therefore used for *persons in general*, "*a man*," meaning indefinitely "*any man*," "*men*," "*people*."

"*Man alone*," "*I alone*:" can I say "*alone man*," "*alone I*?" [No.]

- 518 Then *alone* follows its substantive. "*Man only*," "*I only*:" can I say "*only man*," "*only I*?" [Yes: just.]

- 519 "*His only son*:" "*the only way*:" can I say "*his son only*," "*the way only*?"

I can say "*his son only*," but it means his son *and none besides*; not "*his only son*." In *this* sense, "*only*" stands immediately after an *article*, or the *genitive case* of a personal pronoun, and before the substantive. In the sense of "*alone*," it either follows or precedes the substantive, but *generally* follows it.

- 520 In the following sentences get rid of the *preposition*, "*by*" or "*in*," after the comparative adjective.

"I am not better *by any quantity*." [I am not *any* better.]

"I am better *by something*." [I am *something* better.]

"I am better *by nothing*." [I am *nothing* (or (520) no) better.]

"I am better *by a little*." [I am *a little* better.]

"I am better *by much*." [I am *much* better.]

The indefinite numerals that denote *quantity*, 521 are used with comparative adjectives to express the *degree*.

Instead of *nearly*, in "nearly the same," use 522 "*much*." [*Much* the same.]

Thus "*much*" is sometimes used as an adverb in the sense of "*nearly*."

Exercise 51.

[Get rid of the prepositions in *italics*, and of every unnecessary repetition of a substantive in the same sentence ; also of "*people*," "*a man*," &c. : use *enough* for *sufficient* and its derivatives.]

1. The inconvenience is less *by* something than 523 it was. 2. A man furnished with eyes better *in* no degree than mine, could not discern objects greater even *by* much than those. 3. These are *sufficiently* dull reflections, let me try to suggest some pleasanter reflections. 4. Other *people* might enjoy the prospect of the waves dashing against these rocks. 5. The situation imparts something *in* a little degree resembling pleasure even to me. 6. He writes in spirits better *by somewhat*. 7. I was *in* a great degree averse to the journey, both on account of the distance and the uncertainty of what I should find them. 8. He *and no other* can help me. [Use "*alone*," for "*and no other*."] 9. I was ready to sink with fatigue *by* a long time before we reached our destination. 10. I had the pleasure of meeting your Aunt at Dereham *a few days ago*. [Use "*other*."] 11. Having chastised a boy of his crew with too

- (523) much of severity, he was displaced and consequently ruined. 12. *A man* would not like to fall from a precipice like this. 13. I like them extremely: indeed, I have *not* seen *any* that I like better. [Use "*none*."] 14. Have you eaten a *sufficiency* of bread and butter?

Lesson 50.—Interjections.

- 524 If you were looking about for some object, and at last caught sight of it, you would perhaps *exclaim*, "*Ah!* I see it," or "*Ah!* there it is." Should you not?
- 525 If you were to be struck, and, feeling a sharp pain, were to cry out and tell the person who struck you, that he hurt you, what *exclamation* would you put before "you hurt me?" [*Oh!* you hurt me.]
- 526 ¶ Such *exclamations* as express a feeling of *pleasure, pain, surprise, impatience, contempt*, and so on, are called *interjections*¹.
- 527 Thus "hey!" "ah!" "aha!" "hah!" "hem!" "pish!" "pooh!" "oh!" "hush!" "hallo!" are interjections.

Exercise 52.

[Put an *interjection* in each of the *gaps* left in the following Exercise.]

- 528 1. — good brother Martin, said he, do as I do.
 2. — you must not mind such trifles. 3. What, —, was left for the forlorn Jack to do! 4. — what continual need have I of forgiveness! 5. — pride! pride! it deceives with the subtlety of a

¹ From *interjectus*, *thrown in between* or *amongst*; such an exclamation being *thrown into* the sentence, as it were, without belonging to its grammatical structure.

serpent, and seems to walk erect, though it crawls (528) upon the earth. 6. — thou traitor! hast thou, indeed, held correspondence with our enemies?

7. — me! the blooming pride of May

And that of beauty are but one.—(PRIOR.)

8. — I hear his footsteps. 9. — all will turn out better than you imagine.

Lesson 51.—*Adverbs.*

“The man is *rich*.” What is the ‘subject’ of 529 this proposition? What is the ‘predicate’?

“The man is *very rich*.” What is the ‘predicate’ in this sentence?

Is “*very rich*” more than “*rich*”?

The *adjective* ‘rich’ is therefore *modified* in meaning by the word ‘very.’

So I may say “*wonderfully rich*,” “*extremely rich*,” “*excessively rich*,” “*surprisingly rich*,” &c.

Can I say “he grows *wonderfully*?” 530

—— “I *hardly* suspected it?”

—— “I liked it *excessively*?”

—— “He is *surprisingly* improved?” [Yes.]

Here the *verbs* have their meaning affected by 531 the words *wonderfully*, *hardly*, *excessively*, *surprisingly*.

“I went out *early* this morning:” does ‘*early*’ 532 mark the *time*, the *place*, or the *manner* of my going out?

“He stood *there*.” does ‘*there*’ mark the *time*, the *place*, or the *manner* of his *standing*?

“He cries *lustily*.” does ‘*lustily*’ mark the *time*, the *place*, or the *manner* of his *crying*?

- 533 These little words that add to *verbs* and *adjectives* some circumstance of *time*, *place*, *manner* (*degree*, &c.), are called '*ad-verbs*.'

An *ad-verb* means a word *added to a verb* : but, in point of fact, they are also added to *adjectives*.

- 534 Can they be added immediately to *substantives* ?
Can I, for instance, say "*an excessively man*," "*a surprisingly woman* ?"

- 535 Many *adverbs* are formed from *adjectives*.

<i>Adjective.</i>	<i>Adverb.</i>
surprising,	<i>surprisingly</i> good.
violent,	<i>violently</i> agitated.

- 536 Spell *nasty* | *plentiful* | *agreeable*.
Spell *nastily* | *plentiful-ly* | *agreeably*.

Observe that { a final *y* after a consonant
becomes *i*
a final *e* after a consonant
is thrown away
a final single consonant
is doubled } before
ly.

Exercise 53.

[Add an *adverb* to verbs and adjectives in italics.]

- 537 1. I am *anxious* to see him. 2. I *perceived* that all this was mere deception. 3. I *formed* this conclusion. 4. Such a man is *wise*. 5. I have *timed* it. 6. I here *embrace* an opportunity I have *sought* for, of recommending it as a *noble* undertaking. 7. These notions ought to be *distinguished*. 8. Let him *be furnished* with a green bag and papers, and three pence in his pocket. 9. He is *thick* of hearing, and *short* of sight. 10. All this skill *is lost* by its wrong application. 11. Another *holds* you out his hand to kiss. 12.

His imagination *is disposed* to run away with his (537) reason. 13. I hardly *know* I received it. [Add three *adverbs*; (1) of *time*, (2) of *place*, (3) of *manner*.]

Lesson 52.—Further Explanation of the Subject and Predicate.

What is the *subject* of a sentence? (55, a.)

538

What is the *predicate*? (55, b.)

“The rose is red.” find the *subject*. [The rose]; find the *predicate* [is red].

Yes: but when the verb “*to be*” is used to make the assertion, it is called the “*link*,” or *copula*.

According to this division, ‘*rose*’ is the *subject*, 539 ‘*red*’ is the *predicate*, and ‘*is*’ is the *copula* (or *link*) that connects the *subject* and *predicate*.

“The lock was rusty.” In this sentence,

Which is the *subject*? [Lock.]

Which is the *predicate*? [Rusty.]

Which the *copula*? [Was.]

The *subject* is generally a *substantive*: but it 540 may be any part of speech that can be used as a substantive.

	(Question to be asked after each sentence.)
a) The virtuous are happy.	Find the subject, and say what part of speech it is.
b) He is unfortunate.	
c) Three will be enough.	
d) To err is human.	
e) Once is too often.	

Thus the *subject* may be an *adjective* with the 541 *article*; a *pronoun*; a *numeral*; an *infinitive mood*,

- (541) or even an *adverb*; but all these words are used as substantives, or carry with them the notion of a substantive.

What do I mean by "*the virtuous*?" [*Virtuous persons.*]

'*He*' must, of course, mean some person: '*three*' must mean *three persons* or *things* (the person addressed must know *what* are the persons or things meant). '*To err*,' means the act of *erring*;—*error*: and '*once*,' means *a single time*—*one time*.

- 542 The subject is in the *nominative case*. In our own language, which has so few cases formed by inflexion, we must use a pronoun to show this.

"*He* did it" (not "*him* did it," or "*his* did it").

- 543 The subject is often called *the nominative case to the verb*.

The verb must *agree* with its subject in *number* and *person*.

"*I* laugh;" "*he* laughs;" "*they* laugh;" "*thou* laugh-*est*."

Of what *number* is '*thou*?' [Of the *singular number*.]

Of what *person* is '*thou*?' [Of the *second person*.]

In "*thou* laugh-*est*," *laugh-est* is of the *second person singular*, to agree with its subject (or *nominative case*) '*thou*.'

- 544 "The *council* were divided in opinion;" find the subject. [The *council*.]

Is '*the council*' singular or plural? [Singular.]

Is '*were divided*' singular or plural? [Plural.]

Is it right, then, to say, "*the council were divided?*" (544) [Yes.]

Though '*a council*' means one thing, it means 545 *one thing* that is made up of many: a *body* that is made up of *many members*. When, then, I say, "*the council were divided* in opinion," I mean, "*the members who together made up the council* were divided in opinion."

Such nouns as *council*, *parliament*, *army*, *fleet*, 546 *flock*, &c., are called "*collective nouns*," because they denote *several individuals* considered *collectively* as forming one body.

Could I say correctly, "*the council was divided* 547 in opinion?" [Yes.]

It is not *necessary* to use the plural after a *collective noun*, unless it is necessary or desirable to mark strongly that we are speaking of the *individuals* that make up the body.

We *cannot* use the plural unless the individuals composing the body *are* meant to be denoted. I cannot say, "*Parliament were dissolved*," because each individual was not *dissolved*, but only the *one collective assembly*.

a) "The rose is a flower." 548

b) "The buttercup is a flower."

Join these sentences together.

[The rose and the buttercup *are* flowers.]

Observe, that '*is*,' the singular, is changed 549 into the plural '*are*,' and since *two flowers* are spoken of, the singular flower is changed into the plural, '*flowers*.'

☞ When a verb has *two* or more subjects, it 550 must stand in the plural number.

the form, '*is called*,' does not make a *complete pre-* (553)
*dicat*e.

"The plant is called Ragged Robin:" what is the subject? [The plant—] What the *predicate*, or thing asserted? [*is called* Ragged Robin.]

There are many verbs which do not make a 554
complete predicate.

1.) Verbs of *becoming*.

		what?
He <i>became</i>	—	a miser.
He <i>turned out</i>	—	a rogue.
It <i>proved</i>	—	an idle hope.

2.) Passive verbs of *calling, naming, considering*.

He <i>is called</i>	—	Richard.
He <i>is thought</i>	—	handsome.
He <i>is chosen</i>	—	general.
He <i>is elected</i>	—	a privy councillor.

3.) Verbs of *seeming*.

He <i>seems</i>	—	trustworthy.
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When I say "he *is chosen* general," I say *more* 555
than that he *now is general*: I mean that he *is*
general in consequence of — what? [His *ap-*
pointment or *election* to the office.]

"He *becomes* wise," means *he is wise* in conse-
quence of a *growth*, or *progress*, from a state in
which he was not wise.

"He *is thought* wise," means he is wise *in the*
opinion of men.

Thus, you see, these verbs which require ano- 556
ther word to make them *complete predicates*, add
a particular shade of meaning to the *copula*.

But they *resemble* the *copula* in their office of 557
connecting a *subject* with a *predicate*:

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>(557) a) He <i>is</i> a general.</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">b) He <i>is chosen</i> general.</p> | <p>a) The subject (<i>he</i>) and the <i>predicate</i> (<i>general</i>) are connected together by the <i>copula</i> (<i>is</i>).</p> <p>b) The subject (<i>he</i>) and the <i>predicate</i> (<i>general</i>) are here connected together by the verb (<i>is chosen</i>).</p> |
|--|--|

558 From this resemblance in their office to that of the *copula*, such verbs are called “*copulative verbs*.”

559 The *copulative verbs* with which the *predicate* is in the *nominative case*, are given in the following rhyming lines :

“ Verbs of *becoming* and of *seeming*,
With passive verbs of *making*, *calling*, *deeming*.”

560 Only, under verbs of *making* (*rendering*, &c.), we must reckon those of *appointing* (*choosing*, *electing*). Verbs of *becoming* include “to *grow* (hot);” “to *turn* (pale);” “to *prove* (treacherous).”

561 When I say, “he *is chosen* general:” is “*general*” the *whole* of what *he* is asserted to be; or is *part* of it contained in the verb ‘*is chosen*?’ [Part of it is contained in the verb ‘*is chosen*.’]

Yes: the *whole* predicate, the whole thing asserted, is, that he is a man *chosen general*:—*is a general made such by choice*. Hence part of the predicate is in the verb, and the substantive or *adjective* after the verb is only a *part-predicate*. It is called “the *complement* of the predicate”—that is, the word or notion that *makes* the predicate *complete*.

In "he was chosen general by the people," 562 change the verb into the active voice. [The people *chose* him general.]

Do I say *more* than that the people *chose* him? and if so, *what more* do I say? [You say *more*: "they *chose* him;" and also, "they *chose* him *general*."]

"They *chose* him *general*:" are '*him*,' and '*general*,' spoken about the same person? [Yes.]

What case is '*him*?' [The *accusative*.]

And so '*general*' is the *accusative*; and the 563 *second accusative* is the "*complement of the predicate*."

You will find that verbs of *designation*, *appoint-* 564 *ment*, *choice*, *thinking*, and such others as, in the *passive* voice take a "*complement of the predicate*" in the *nominative*, do, in the *active* voice, take a *complement of the predicate* in the *accusative*.

		(<i>Complement of Predicate</i> .)
a) {	He <i>was named</i>	<i>Richard</i> . [<i>nom.</i>]
	They <i>named</i> him	<i>Richard</i> . [<i>acc.</i>]
b) {	He <i>is thought</i>	<i>clever</i> . [<i>nom.</i>]
	They <i>think</i> him	<i>clever</i> . [<i>acc.</i>]
c) {	He <i>is appointed</i>	<i>commissioner</i> . [<i>nom.</i>]
	They <i>appoint</i> him	<i>commissioner</i> . [<i>acc.</i>]

"They *paint* the door *green*:" what is said of 565 the door? [That it is *painted green*.]

What is the predicate? [*Paint—green*.]

Then '*green*' is "the complement of the predi- 566 cate" in the *accusative*.

"The door is *painted green*:" here '*green*' is the complement of the predicate in the *nominative*.

But "*to paint*" is not a copulative verb. "To 567 *paint green*," is an English idiom, that means to *make* a thing *green* by *painting*.

- (567) So, "*to run myself out of breath (or breathless),*" is *to make myself breathless by running.*

Still, however, we may call '*green*' the complement of the predicate "*to paint*," when we speak of a thing as *painted green*.

Exercise 55.

[Fill up the gaps with a *copulative verb*; or, if the sentence already has a *verb*, with a *complement of the predicate*.]

- 568 1. The troops salute him emperor. [Turn the verb into the *pass.*] 2. He — angry. 3. He was heard to declare, that if he could — each individual richer than Midas, and every city — than Babylon, he should not — himself the benefactor of mankind, unless he could reclaim his subjects from their impious revolt. 4. The conquest — easy by the exhaustion of all their resources. 5. I shall — a true prophet. 6. He — a treacherous friend, and a faithless and cruel enemy. 7. He — master of the mint. 8. I shall paint the street-door —.

Lesson 54.—Predicative Combination (continued).

	(Predicate.)	What part of speech is
569 He is	<i>happy.</i>	happy?
He is	<i>a merchant.</i>	a—merchant?
This is	<i>folly.</i>	folly?
He	<i>cries.</i>	cries?
He is	<i>crying.</i>	crying?
The house is	<i>mine.</i>	mine?
The fault is	<i>this.</i>	this?
They are	<i>in the bank.</i>	in—the—bank?
We are	<i>seven.</i>	seven?
The fire is	<i>out.</i>	out?
To do that is	<i>{ to cheat.</i>	to cheat?
	<i>{ cheating.</i>	cheating?

Then the predicate of a sentence may be an *adjective*; a *substantive*; a *verb*; a *participle*; a *possessive* or *demonstrative pronoun*; a *numeral*; an *adverb*; an *infinitive mood*; a *participial substantive*; or a *substantive* governed by a *preposition*.

What have we called every notion that completes the predicate? [The complement of the predicate.]

"I fell *down*." 'down' is — what? [The complement of the predicate.]

"He fell *ill*." 'ill' is — what? [The complement of the predicate.]

Exercise 56.

[Add a *predicate*, or *complement of the predicate*, to each of the following imperfect sentences. The part of speech required is stated after each.]

1. They are [*participle*].
2. All of them were [*substantive governed by a preposition*].
3. Both the wrestlers are [*adv.*].
4. The play is [*adv.*].
5. Our wants are [*passive participle*].
6. He is [*active participle*].
7. All these villages are [*a substantive governed by a preposition*].
8. Is your game [*adv.*]?
9. We are [*numeral*].
10. Such reprisals are [*adjective*].
11. To do nothing is [*infinitive, with its object*].

Lesson 55.—Attributive Combination.

If I wish to *describe* a man more particularly, as being for instance, 'tall,' 'dark,' 'industrious,' I must call him — what? [A *tall* man; a *dark* man; an *industrious* man.]

Though I here call the man a tall man, I do

(573) not state the fact of his being ‘*tall*’ in a complete sentence, do I? [No.]

574 When I say “a *tall* man,” I *attribute* to the man in question the property of *tallness*; and ‘*tall*’ is said to be an *attributive*, and to be joined *attributively* to ‘*man*.’

So in “an *industrious* man,” ‘*industrious*’ is an *attributive*; and it is joined *attributively* to ‘*man*.’

575 Any notion that is added to a substantive for the purpose of *describing* it more exactly, *but not asserted of it in the form of a sentence*, is said to be joined to it *attributively*.

576 We shall find, that any word or phrase that can be a *predicate*, can also be used *attributively* (or as an *attributive* notion).

	The attributive notion is — what?	What part or parts of speech is this attributive?
A tall boy.	Tall,	Adjective.
A weeping child.	Weeping,	Participle.
My boy.	My,	Possessive pronoun.
That boy.	That,	Demonstrative pronoun.
Six boys.	Six,	A numeral.
Cæsar’s troops.	Cæsar’s,	A substantive in the gen. case.
The men on guard.	On guard,	Substantive governed by a preposition.

577 “King Henry:” how is Henry here more exactly described? [By being called ‘*King*.’]

578 The substantive, ‘*king*,’ is placed by *the side*

of 'Henry,' without any preposition; and the (578) two words are said to be in *apposition* to each other. And 'King' is said to be in *apposition*¹ to 'Henry.'

Still, however, since 'King' is used to describe 'Henry' more exactly, it is an *attributive*. So that a substantive placed in *apposition* is a peculiar kind of *attributive*.

"Mr. Wilson the barrister:" "Mr. Wilson *a* 579 barrister:" how is 'Mr. Wilson' more exactly described? [By being called 'the barrister,' 'a barrister.']

What part of speech is 'the?' [The definite article.]

What part of speech is 'a?' [The indefinite article.]

A substantive, then, with an article, may be placed in *apposition* to another substantive.

a) "Mr. Williams, the barrister, was not in 580 court."

b) "The barrister, Mr. Williams, was not in court."

Do these sentences mean exactly the same thing? [No.]

Right: when I say 'Mr. Williams, the barrister,' I add 'the *barrister*' to show what Mr. Williams I mean; but when I say 'the barrister, Mr. Williams,' I am going to say something about 'the *barrister*,' but before I do so, add, that in this instance it was 'Mr. Williams.'

¹ From the Latin *ap-positio*, a placing to or by.

Exercise 57.

[Place an *attributive* word or notion in each of the gaps.]

- 581 1. The acquisition of — proselytes gratified
the — passions of — soul. 2. The legions
devoted themselves to the fortunes of their —
leaders. 3. They gained an — victory. 4.
They assisted at the sacrifices with — devotion.
5. The legions — were impatient to reach the
scene of action. 6. The — command of Africa
had long been exercised by the consul —.

[Write down all the *attributive* words or notions in the following sentence.]

7. Before he could procure any certain intelligence, he was suddenly informed that the great Theodosius, with a small band of veterans, had landed on the African coast; and the timid usurper sunk under the ascendant of virtue and military genius.

Lesson 56.—Objective Combination.

- 582 We shall see that *verbs* and *adjectives* may also be more closely described by other notions.

He ran —— where? [across the meadow.]

He ran — how? [swiftly.]

He ran — how far? [a mile.]

He ran —— how long? [half an hour.]

All such notions are said to be joined *objectively* to the verb (he) 'ran.'

- 583 Hot — in what degree? [Very hot.]
Desirous — in what degree? [Very desirous;
or but little
desirous.]
Desirous — of what? [Desirous of
glory.]
Desirous — to do what? [To please.]

All such notions are said to be joined *objectively* (588) to the adjective '*desirous*.'

And, generally, every notion that is referred to 584 a verb or adjective, in whatever form it be expressed, is said to be joined to it *objectively*, and to be an *objective notion*.

Exercise 58.

[Fill up each gap with an *objective notion*.]

1. The troops marched — [how?] — 585 [where?]
2. The troops, eager —, rushed —.
3. The mind should endeavour — to throw off this troublesome idea.
4. He was secluded — [how long?] — [from what?]

[Write down (1) the *objective* notions in the following sentences : (2) the *attributive* notions.]

Fear overwhelms with confusion: and if the terror rise to a very high degree, it totally stupifies the senses, and causes a fainting. It crowds the whole mass of blood upon the heart. It adds wings to our speed; and none fight so furiously as cowards driven to despair.

Lesson 57.—Attributive and Objective Notions (continued).

"The soldier conquered:" 'conquered' is — 586 what part of the sentence? [The *predicate*.] What is the *subject* of this sentence, "The soldier conquered?" [The soldier.]

This is a *predicative* combination; the notion 'conquered,' is joined *predicatively* to 'the soldier:' and the sentence is in its *simplest* form.

Add a notion *attributively* to 'soldier.' Take, 587 for instance, the participle, 'betrayed.' [The *betrayed soldier* conquered.]

'The *betrayed soldier*' is an *attributive* com-

- (587) bination:—the participle ‘betrayed,’ is joined *attributively* to ‘soldier.’

Every attributive, and every verb, may have modifying notions attached to them: these are said to be *objective* notions, or attached *objectively*.

- 588 The principal *object* is the accusative case after the *transitive* verb of the active voice. Put an object after ‘conquered.’ [The betrayed soldier conquered his *assailants*.]

‘Conquered his assailants,’ is an objective combination: the notion ‘*assailants*,’ is added *objectively* to ‘conquered.’

- 589 But objective notions are very various; a vast number are under the government of prepositions.

Add *objectively* to ‘betrayed’ a notion governed by a preposition.—Suppose that his *comrades* had betrayed him. The sentence, you know, was, “The betrayed soldier conquered his assailants.” [The soldier, betrayed *by his comrades*, conquered his assailants.]

Add a second *attributive* notion (besides ‘his’ to both ‘*comrades*’ and ‘*assailants*.’ [The soldier, betrayed by his *treacherous* comrades, conquered *all* his assailants.]

Add another notion *objectively* to ‘conquered.’ [The soldier, betrayed by his treacherous comrades, conquered all his assailants *with the utmost ease*.]

Add another notion *attributively* to ‘soldier;’ let it be an *adjective*. [The *brave* soldier, betrayed by his treacherous comrades, conquered all his assailants with the utmost ease.]

Add still another notion *attributively* to ‘soldier;’ let it be under the government of a pre-

position. [The brave soldier *on guard*, betrayed (589) by his treacherous comrades, conquered all his assailants with the utmost ease.]

We might go on still further: but however numerous our additions, every one must be either an *objective* notion or an *attributive* one: these three combinations, the *predicative*, the *objective*, and the *attributive*, embrace every possible combination of notions of which a simple sentence can be composed.

Exercise 59.

[Add *attributive* and *objective* notions (in answer to the suggesting questions) to each of the following *predicate combinations*.]

1. "I stayed." a) *How long?* b) *With whom?* 591
2. "My desire would not suffer."
 - a) *What kind of desire?*
 - b) *Desire of what?*
 - c) *Would not suffer whom?*
 - d) *To do what?*
 - e) *How long?*
3. "I left." a) *How much?* b) *With whom?*
4. "Johnny was."
 - a) *Johnny is my — what relation?*
 - b) *After whom was he named Johnny?*
 - c) *Where was he?*

Lesson 58.—Genitive Relations.

"The king's crown:" whose crown? [The 592 king's.]

Who is the possessor of the king's crown? [The king.]

What case is 'king's?' [The *genitive*.]

- 593 What is the kind of change called, that adds a slightly different meaning to a word by a change in its form? [*Inflexion.*]

Yes: and the *genitive* formed by adding *s*, with an *apostrophe* before it (*'s*), to a substantive, is the *genitive* formed by *inflexion*.

The *genitive* formed by *inflexion* denotes the *possessor*; and in use is equivalent to a possessive adjective. "*Cæsar's party*" — "the *Cæsarian party*."

- 594 But a substantive used objectively with the preposition '*of*,' is often equivalent to a *genitive* case, and would be translated by a *genitive* in several other languages—for instance, in Latin or Greek.

a) "The horses of these men:" who possess the horses? [*These men.*]

Then the substantive governed by '*of*,' here denotes the *possessor*, and is in the *genitive relation* [*equi horum hominum*].

b) "A box of tea:" the box *contains* tea. "A cart of stones:" the cart *contains* stones.

'*Tea*,' and '*stones*,' governed by '*of*,' are considered *genitive relations*. This sort of *genitive* may be called a "*genitive of the contents*."

c) "A box of alabaster:" the box was *made of alabaster*.

'*Alabaster*,' governed by '*of*,' is considered a *genitive* case. It may be called the "*genitive of the material*."

d) "Some of these:" '*these*' denote a certain number, of which the '*some*' spoken of are a *part*.

'*Some*,' '*few*,' '*many*,' and so on, when followed by a substantive governed by '*of*,' are

called "*partitive adjectives*," or "*partitives*;" and (594) the object governed by '*of*,' after these *partitives*, is considered a genitive relation:—so also is the *noun* governed by '*of*' after the substantives, '*part*,' '*portion*,' '*share*,' &c.

e) The completing notion of some adjectives is also a *genitive relation*.

Mindful of — this.

Desirous of — this.

Greedy of — this.

Conscious of — this.

Guilty of — this.

f) The completing notion after

1) To *repent*, to *be ashamed* (of — this);

2) To *be condemned*, or *acquitted* (of — this);

3) To *be deprived* (of — this);

is also considered a genitive relation.

(See more upon "*of*" under "*Ablative Relations*.")

Exercise 60.

[Fill up the gaps with *genitive relations*.]

1. A crow, rook, or raven, has built a nest in 595 one¹ — at the side of Mrs. Aspray's orchard.
2. I was willing to wait till the impression your commendation had made upon the foolish part² — had worn off.
3. Pope is to me the most disagreeable maker³ — that ever I met with.
4. Ask your uncle; for he is wiser in these things than either⁴ —.
5. I send you a translation⁵ —.
6. They were all honorably acquitted —.
7. He was robbed —.
8. They have just brought a load —.

¹ It was built in a young elm tree.

² He is *himself* the person who had the foolish part.

³ He made *epistles*.

⁴ Neither *you nor I* equal him in this wisdom.

⁵ The thing translated was a simile in "*Paradise Lost*."

Lesson 59.—Dative Relations.

- 596 “Tell it to your mother:” what is the (*accusative*) *object* in this sentence? [*It.*]

In what way is ‘*to your mother*’ added to the verb ‘*tell*?’ It *must* be added, you know, either *predicatively* or *objectively*. [*Objectively.*]

- 597 The person *to whom* an action is done is generally called the *remoter object* of the verb. Thus, in “I will tell it to my mother,” ‘*it*’ is the nearer, ‘*mother*’ the *remoter object*.

- 598 In many languages the *remoter object* is expressed by a case, which is called the *dative case*¹.

Hence the preposition ‘*to*,’ often introduces a *dative relation*, or what is, *in effect*, a *dative case*.

- 599 But when ‘*to*’ introduces a virtually *dative case*, there must always be an *object* (the *nearer object*) in the *accusative*.

“I shall go to Rome:” is ‘*to Rome*’ a virtually *dative case*? [*No.*]

No: ‘*to*,’ after verbs of motion, does *not* mark a *dative relation*.

- 600 “Lend me sixpence:” find the *nearer object*. Lend — what? [*Sixpence.*]

“*To whom* is the sixpence to be lent?” [*To me.*]

Then what is the *remoter object*? [*Me.*]

- 601 “Lend me sixpence?”

“Lend sixpence *to me*?”

¹ *Dative*, from *dare*, to give: ‘*to give*’ being one very common verb, that takes a *remoter* as well as a *nearer object*; “to give a thing to a man.”

Hence we see, that after some verbs, the pre- (601)
position 'to' may be omitted, and the *remoter*
object be placed in what looks like an *accusative*.

Can I say, "Give *sixpence* me?" [No.] 602

Can I say, "Give *it* me?" [Yes.]

Can I say, "Give *this* me?" [No.]

Can I say, "Give *them* me?" [Yes.]

When 'to' is omitted before the *remoter object*, 603
it must stand *immediately after* the verb, unless
the *nearer object* be 'it' or 'them,' which may
precede a *remoter object*.

"Give it me." } Are these expressions exactly 604
"Give me it." } the same in meaning or not¹?

"Give them me." } Are these expressions ex-
"Give me them." } actly the same or not¹?

"*He is like* the old admiral:" can the adjective
'*like*' take an *object* after it in the *accusative*?
[No.]

Right: the full construction is "*like to* a man,"
though the preposition '*to*,' is now nearly always
omitted after '*like*.'

"He made it *for* me." 605

"He is singing *for* you."

A substantive under the government of '*for*' is
also considered to be in the *dative relation*, when
it expresses the person to whose *satisfaction* or
advantage, *displeasure* or *disadvantage*, the action
is done, or the thing exists.

"He made me a whistle:" what did he make? 606
[A whistle.]

For whom did he make it? [For me.]

¹ In these instances, when the *remoter object* stands after the
nearer one, it is *emphatic*:—"Give it *me*;" that is, "Give it to
me, not to any one else."

Exercise 61.

[Make a list of all *remoter objects* in the following Exercise, which look like *accusatives*.]

- 607 1. As you desire it, however, and I am not able to refuse you the little that is in my power, I just subjoin a few hints that have occurred to me upon the subject. 2. These are privileges, which you well know how to dilate upon, better than I can tell you. 3. Necessity made me a carpenter, a birdcage-maker, a gardener; and has lately taught me to draw; and that, with such surprising proficiency, that, when I shew your mother my productions, she is all admiration and applause. 4. This has taught me a wholesome lesson, which, I hope, I shall not soon forget. 5. You cannot refuse him so slight a boon. 6. Will you make me a birdcage? 7. You indulge me in such a variety of subjects, and allow me such a latitude in this scribbling employment, that I have no excuse for silence. 8. I am much obliged to you for swallowing such boluses as I send you, for the sake of my gilding; and verily believe I am the only man alive from whom they would be welcome to a palate like yours.

Lesson 60.—Ablative Relations.

- 608 "I knew him to be a soldier:" suppose his *uniform* to be the outward sign *by which* you knew him to be a soldier;—express this. [I knew him to be a soldier *by* his uniform.]
- 609 "I cut the loaf:" express that you used a *knife* to effect this with. [I cut the loaf *with* a knife.]

What was the *instrument with which* you cut the loaf? [A knife.]

“I leapt:” express that *joy* was the *cause* of 610 your leaping. [I leapt *for* joy.]

“He is beloved:” express that his *companions* are the persons who love him. [He is beloved *by* his companions.]

“They walked:” express that *order* was the *manner* in which they walked. [They walked *in* order.]

The *cause*, *manner*, or *instrument*, are usually 611 considered *ablative* relations.

The proper *ablative* relation is that of *motion* 612 *from* an object; hence the term is extended to denote all that *proceeds from*, or is *caused by* an object.

Many languages have a particular *ablative*¹ *case*, formed by *inflection*; for instance, the Latin language has. The Greek denotes ablative relations sometimes by the *dative* case, sometimes by the *genitive*.

“To die *of* hunger:” what was the *cause* of the 613 person’s death? [Hunger.]

When ‘*of*’ introduces the *cause*, it serves to express *ablative* (not *genitive*) relations.

Exercise 62.

[Add to these sentences the *instrument*, *cause*, or *manner*, indicated by the *substantives*, &c., in the right hand column.]

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| 1. You supposed that we should be apprehensive of your safety. | reason enough. |
| 2. We accept it | pleasure. |
| 3. I corrected my mistakes | the Key. |
| 4. I will never do this | compulsion. |

¹ *Ablative* means relating to *taking away*.

- | | | |
|-------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| (614) | 5. The poor woman died | absolute starvation. |
| | 6. This remark was suggested | the late dismissal of the ministers. |
| | 7. The Gothic porch was smothered | honeysuckle. |
| | 8. He lopt off the topmost branches | a woodman's axe. |

Lesson 61.—Accessory Sentences.
(*Substantive Sentences.*)

615 We have hitherto been speaking principally of simple sentences; sentences, that is, with *one verb*. But a sentence sometimes has *another sentence* (usually called an *accessory sentence*) so closely connected with it, that the two must be taken together before any full meaning is conveyed.

One of these sentences, that which completes the meaning of the other, is generally connected with it by a *conjunction*; sometimes by a *relative* or *interrogative pronoun* or *adverb*.

616 We will first take sentences that are equivalent to either the *subject* or *object* of the principal sentence, or to an *apposition* to a substantive notion expressed in it.

“It is reported:” suppose the thing *reported* to be *the death of his uncle*; and express this by a sentence introduced by ‘*that*.’ [It is reported *that* his uncle is dead.]

617 “Who are you?” which is here the subject? [You.]

“What is he doing?” find the subject. [He.]

A sentence containing a question is called an (617) *interrogative* sentence: the subject stands, as you have seen, *after* the verb; but if the verb is of a compound tense, the subject *follows* the auxiliary verb, and *precedes* the participle or infinitive.

“Who is it?” make this sentence depend on 618 ‘he asks.’ [He asks the servant, who it is.]

Make it dependent on ‘he asked.’ [He asked the servant, *who* it was.]

“How can I do it?” ‘How’ is an interrogative 619 adverb denoting *manner*: and the sentence is a *question*, or interrogative sentence. Make it depend on ‘he asked him.’ [He asked him *how* he could do it.]

“How he could do it,” is here a *dependent question*, or dependent interrogative clause.

“Will you do it?” make this dependent on 620 ‘he asks.’ [He asks him *whether* he will do it.] On ‘he asked.’ [He asked him *whether* he would do it.]

“Will you do it or not?” This is a *double question*;—make it dependent on ‘he asked him.’ [He asked him *whether* he would do it *or* not.]

Can you use any other conjunction instead of 621 ‘*whether*?’—Take “he asked him *whether* he had seen his brother.” [He asked him *if* he had seen his brother.]

You now know how to ask double questions 622 (that is, with the conjunction ‘*or*’), and to make them dependent on another verb by using ‘*whether—or*’ the verb being changed into the past tense, if the verb of the principal sentence is in a past tense (*imperfect, perfect, or pluperfect*).

Exercise 63.

- 623 i. [The dependent question *may* be divided from the principal one by a *comma*, but this is usually omitted when the dependent sentence is not a long one. Form an accessory sentence with '*that*,' and make it depend on the sentence in the opposite column. The word in *italics* must be changed into a *verb*.]

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| 1. May we hope | the continued <i>spreading</i> of the practice. |
| 2. You will be gratified to be told | I have the same opinion you have expressed of that cold and false-hearted Frenchified coxcomb, Horace Walpole. |
| 3. I hope | in the meeting about to take place at Cambridge, there will be less of mutual flattery among the men of science, than appeared in that of the last year at Oxford. |

- ii. [Make the sentences in B. depend on those in A. Change '*you*' into '*he*,' '*him*.']

- | A. | B. |
|-------------------|--|
| 4. I know | How much do you value this excellent person? |
| 5. He asked him | Which have you the most reason to expect? |
| 6. He asked him | Can you not take us in your way coming or going? |
| 7. I will enquire | Is Mrs. H. to accompany you, or not? |
| 8. I will ask him | Have you any objection?
[If you can express this in a dependent form in two ways, do so.] |

Lesson 62.—*Relative (Accessory) Sentences.*

a) "The man whom I saw yesterday has written 624
to me to-day." what man has written to me to-
day? [The man *whom I saw yesterday*.]

In the sentence "whom I saw," find the sub- 625
ject [I]:—The object [Whom].

In what case does 'whom' stand? [In the ac-
cusative.]

Is 'the man' more particularly described by 626
being called "the man *whom I saw yesterday*?"
[Yes.]

Is not a substantive generally more particularly
described by an *attributive*? [Yes.]

Then a relative sentence is very like an *attri-* 627
butive notion attached to a verb. If we could form
adjectives long enough, we might generally ex-
press a relative sentence by an *adjective*. A man
'*whom I saw yesterday*,' is a '*seen-by-me-yester-*
day' man.

A man '*who* is never enough to be lamented,'
is '*a never enough to be lamented* man.'

"A man who speaks:" I cannot say a thing *who* 628
—, but a thing — what? [A thing *which*.]

a) A man *whom* } I dislike. 629
b) A thing *which* }

Try to use another pronoun that will do as well
as '*which*' in these sentences. [A man *that* I
dislike: a thing *that* I dislike.]

Yes: '*that*' is not only a *demonstrative*, but
also a *relative* pronoun.

a) A thing *which* I dislike. 630
b) A thing *that* I dislike.

Try whether you can *leave out* the '*which*' or
'*that*.' [A thing I dislike.]

631 Yes: this is quite an English idiom: in translating 'I dislike' into Latin, for instance, or French, you *must* place the accusative of the relative pronoun to mark the object of '*I dislike.*'

632 "A tradesman *whose* sister lives at Frome:" '*whose* sister' means the sister of that *tradesman*, does it not? [Yes.]

The substantive which is *meant* by the relative, or, as is generally said, to which the *relative refers*, is called its *antecedent*, because it *goes before it*, usually at least, in the principal sentence.

"A lad to *whom* ——:" '*lad*' is the *antecedent* to *whom*.

633 In some languages the relative has different *genders*: of course it must be of the same gender as its *antecedent*.

"A man *who* ——" ['*who*' is here *masculine*] (*homo, qui* —.)

"A woman *who* ——" ['*who*' is here *feminine*] (*mulier, quæ* —.)

634 a) "There is no one *who* does *not* condemn him."

b) "There is no one *but* condemns him."

Have these sentences the same meaning?

[Yes.]

635 This is a very curious use of '*but.*' It probably arose from a fuller form. "No man *but* you¹," means "no man *except* you." Hence, "*there is no man but men who condemn him,*" was abridged into "*there is no man but condemns him.*" the verb being in the singular, because the form means there *is no single person* who does not condemn him.

636 "In the day *that* thou eatest thereof ——;"

¹ i. e. (according to Horne Tooke) "no man *be out* you:" "no man, put you aside;" "no man if you *are out.*"

does not this mean “in the day *on which* thou (636) eatest thereof?” [Yes.]

This is a curious omission of the preposition. After a substantive that expresses *time*, ‘*that*’ is sometimes used without a preposition. And this ‘*that*’ is sometimes quite left out; especially after ‘*the instant*,’ ‘*the moment*,’ e. g. “*the moment I saw him I called out.*”

“She said she would have the head of *any man* 637 *who* had advised it:” use ‘*whoever*’ for ‘*any man who*.’ [She said she would have the head of *whoever* had advised it.]

You must attend to this use. Observe that the preposition ‘*of*’ is left without any *noun*; or rather belongs to the whole relative clause “*whoever advised it*,” so that the whole clause is, as it were, put in the genitive.

a) “Do you believe *that which* you hear?” 638

b) “Do you believe *what* you hear?”

Is there any difference of meaning? [No.]

Right: ‘*what*,’ as a *relative* pronoun, is used 639 for ‘*that which*.’

Exercise 64.

[Express each clause under B. as a *relative clause*, *in*, or *appended to*, the corresponding clause in A.]

The relative clause is generally separated by a comma or commas, unless it adheres so closely to its antecedent as to form one complex notion with it: e. g. “The man *who drives the Telegraph*.”

A.
He gave me an answer.

Columbus believed himself to have ascertained by sound arguments, that there must be another continent.

B.
This answer consoled me 640 for my loss.

That other continent would, he thought, be found by sailing west.

(640) Sorrow does not flow from the absence of good things.

He took us into a swelling field to look down on the tumbling stream.

The pond had no culture, or trees, or habitation around it.

There was no one *who* did *not* notice the connexion. [Change '*who*'—not into '*but*.']

That water-break was the scene of a sad accident.

Any man *who* believes the strange tales [use '*whoever*'] is strangely credulous.

Do you believe *that* *which* he says? [Use '*what*.']

We have never experienced those good things. [Use *no* relative.]

The tumbling stream bounded the field, and we saw *it* precipitated at a distance, in a broad white sheet, from the mountain.

The pond might almost be called a lake for size and abundance of water.

It formed a connexion in the landscape with the distant waterfall.

The water-break looks so lovely. [Use the relative '*that*.']

Mr. H. amuses his audience with strange tales.

Lesson 63.—Accessory Sentences of Time.

641 1.) "Bring the book with you:" express your wish that the time of his bringing it should be the time of his coming. [Bring the book with you, *when* you come.]

2.) "As he said these words, he put out the

candle;" *when* did he put out the candle? [*As* (641) he said these words.]

Then '*as*' is here used as a conjunction denoting *time*. It denotes that the two events occurred *precisely* at the same time.—"I went out *as* he came in."

"*Whenever* I see him } I make a point of speak- 642
 "*When* I see him } ing to him."

Is there any difference of meaning between these two sentences? [No.]

Hence, '*when*' sometimes means '*whenever*,' or '*whenever*;' another form for this is '*as often as*.'

a) "I left the room." 643

b) "The clock struck twelve."

Combine these two sentences into one, representing your quitting the room as *immediately following* the striking of the clock.

[I left the room, *as soon as* (*as soon as ever*—*the moment that*—*the instant that*—) the clock struck twelve.]

Another way is to use a sentence of comparison: 614
 "the clock *no sooner* struck twelve, than I left the room:" or we may say, "it had *hardly* struck twelve *before* he left the room;" "the clock had *but just* struck twelve *when* he quitted the room."

a) "I will read *whilst* } you are writing your 645
 b) "I will read *as long as* } letter."

Here the actions of reading and writing go on together; and each to be continued as long as the other. In other words, '*whilst*,' '*as long as*,' denote *co-existence* with another action or state.

a) "He had ceased speaking." 646

b) "He fell into a fit."

(646) Combine these sentences into one compound sentence, to express that his falling into the fit followed his ceasing to speak, not immediately however, but after no long time.

647 ["He had not *long* ceased speaking *when* he fell into a fit:" or, "he fell into a fit *soon after* he had ceased speaking."]

648 "I never saw him *after* he left me:" here '*after*' introduces a *preceding* event; but if the perfect with '*have*' is used, we must employ not '*after*,' but '*since*.'

a) "I *have* not *seen* him *since* he left me."

b) "*Have* you *seen* him *since* he left you."

649 a) "I will remain."

b) "You come."

Mark, that your remaining is to continue *up* to the time of his coming.

[I will remain *till* (or *until*) you come.]

650 Could you use any other word instead of '*till*' in the sentence "I will not go *till* you come?" [Yes: "I will not go *before* you come."]

Yes: in a negative sentence, '*before*' has nearly the force of '*till*.' Of course, '*before*' denotes an event that was *preceded* by another. "He went away *before* I came."

Exercise 65.

651 [The accessory sentence of time may be separated by a comma or commas; but this is often omitted when the clause is *short*. The pupil had better *not omit* it. The sentences A, B, are to be combined.]

(1) Simultaneous.

A (<i>principal</i>). I was not at all aware of any impropriety in the passage in question.	B (<i>accessory</i>). I wrote the passage in question.
--	--

The adoption of other measures is at least pleasing.	A long series of measures, of a certain description, has proved unsuccessful.
--	---

He thought he should have been distracted.	He had only two or three children.
--	------------------------------------

(2.) A. occurs as often as B. occurs.

A. He is ready to rush into the street.	B. The children come into the room.
--	--

Simple subsequence of A. to B.

A. He was refuted with the utmost ease, and most convincing perspicuity.	B. He had excited the curiosity of the giddy and unthinking.
---	---

Simple precedence of A. to B.

A. He was refuted by the most cogent reasoning.	B. His shallow pamphlet had not done any serious mischief.
--	---

Immediate subsequence of A. to B.

A. His specious fallacies were most completely exposed. His poem was mercilessly ridiculed by the hack critics of the day.	B. His shallow pamphlet was published. His poem appeared.
--	---

A. continued up to B. ; or not begun till B. happens.

A. (<i>principal.</i>) I had no rest in my mind. A champion has no right to despise his enemy.	B. (<i>accessory.</i>) I resolved to submit it to a trial at your tribunal. He has faced and vanquished him.
--	--

- | | | |
|-------|---|---|
| (651) | He will never face him.
He had been regaling himself with drink. | He is compelled to face him.
He was unable to stand unsupported. |
|-------|---|---|

A. immediately follows B.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| A.
He offered to lend him money. | B.
He heard of his losses. |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|

Co-existence asserted or denied.

- | | |
|--|---|
| A.
It is not likely to fail.
He received three shillings every week. | B.
We are living.
Mrs. B. resided at the cottage. |
|--|---|

Lesson 64.—Accessory Sentences of Comparison.

- 652 “Henry and Mary are to be compared in point of height:” in what form would you deny that Henry, the younger, was as tall as his sister Mary? [Henry is not *so* tall *as* Mary.]

- 653 “I assure you that Henry is ——:” state that he *is* what the last sentence denied him to be. [Henry is *as* tall *as* Mary.]

‘*As*’ is used to connect sentences of comparison when the compared objects are stated *to be*, or *not to be*, equal.

- 654 If we wished to assert that the *superiority* in point of height was on Henry’s side, you would say, “Henry is ——” what? [Henry is taller *than* Mary.]

Yes: taller is called the *comparative* degree of *tall*. “Henry is taller than Mary,” means, “He is taller than Mary *is*,” does it not? [Yes.]

And, "He is *as* tall as Mary," means, "as tall (654) as Mary *is*," does it not? [Yes.]

But the verb is generally omitted in the clause 655 (or sentence) with '*as*,' '*than*,' if it has been expressed in the other clause (or sentence). *Clause* means a portion that *en-closes* a complete meaning: it is usually employed to denote one member of a *compound* sentence.

"He has ridden a mile in a shorter time than 656 you ever will:"—than you ever will — what? [will ride a mile.]

Yes: the verb, you see, was the same in the former sentence (has ridden), but the tense was *different*; here it is enough to use the *auxiliary* verb, if the tense is a *compound* one (one, that is, made up of an auxiliary verb and infinitive or participle). If the verb in the first clause was in the *present* or *perfect*, '*do*' or '*did*' are used in the second clause.

"I *ride* a mile in a shorter time than he *does*." 657

"I *rode* a mile in a shorter time than he *did*."

The comparative of adjectives is formed by 658 adding *er* (tall, tall-*er*); but you must remember to *double* the last consonant, if the first syllable ends in a single consonant; and to change *y* into *i*, if the adjective ends in *y*. If it ends in *e*, only *r* is added.

Thin,	} comparative — what? {	thin-ner.
Sturdy,		sturdi-er.
Safe,		safe-r.

(For *irregular* Comparatives, see the COMPANION, § 2.)

Could you say, "He is playfuller than his sister?" [No.]

What *ought* you to say? [He is *more playful* than his sister.]

- 659 **Yes:** the comparative in *er* is only formed from *monosyllables*¹, and from *dissyllables* in *y* (easy, easier).

Exercise 66.

[The materials given in the two columns are to be worked up into sentences of comparison. The clause with '*as*' or '*than*' is often not *stopt off* (by a *comma* or *commas*) unless it is a very long one.]

- | A. | B. |
|--|--|
| 660 1. I need not describe this scene, for William has described it. | I could not describe it near so well as William. |
| 2. The five last lines of his poem will impart to you <i>much</i> of the feeling of the place. | It is not possible for me to impart to you so much of the <i>feeling</i> of the place. |
| 3. This may perhaps give you some power to conceive what it is. | All I have said will not give you so much power to conceive it. |
| 4. It looks well at a distance. | It looks equally well near. |
| 5. The good old woman moved about briskly. | If she had been only seventeen she could not have moved about more briskly. |
| 6. Her overflowing gaiety might be in part attributive to a certain cause. | Her former dejection might be attributed to the same cause. |
| 7. She had a striking manner. | She had had the same striking manner before. |
| 8. She sang. | Her aunt sang, but not so well. |
| 9. He looks well in your poem. | It does not look so well in its present realities. |

¹ *Monosyllable*, word of one syllable: *dissyllable*, word of two syllables.

Lesson 65.—Conditional Sentences. 661

- a) “If ‘ifs’ and ‘an’s’
 Were pots and pans,
 There would be no work for the tinker.”

On what *condition* or *supposition* would there be no work for the tinker? [On the condition, that ‘ifs’ and ‘an’s’ were pots and pans.]

‘An’ is an old form for ‘if:’ “an you will” = “if you will.”

A sentence introduced by ‘if’ marks a condition: the clause introduced by ‘if’ is called the *conditional* clause (or *condition*); the other the principal clause, or the *consequence*.

a) “If you have found any footsteps, the island 662
 must be inhabited.” This is *equally* true, whether the person addressed has found any footsteps or not.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| a) “If he <i>has</i> any thing | } he will give it 663
you.” |
| b) “If he <i>have</i> any thing | |
| c) “If he <i>should have</i> any thing | |

The condition is here *uncertain*, but there is generally a ‘*prospect of decision*:’ the speaker seems to imply that it will be *ascertained* whether the person in question has any thing or not.

“If he *has*:”—‘*has*’ is in the indicative mood. 664

“If he *have*:”—of what mood and tense is ‘*have*?’ [The Present of the *Subjunctive*.]

“If he *should have*:” this form expresses the 665 condition as somewhat doubtful. The *indicative* is *generally* used in English, when the verb of the principal sentence is in the future.

- a) “If he *should wish* it, I *would do* it.” 666
 b) “If he *should ask* me, I *would not refuse*.”
 c) “If he *were to wish* it, I *would not refuse*.”

(666) Here the verb in both clauses is in the *Imperfect of the Subjunctive*. The condition is represented as quite *uncertain*: and the *consequence* is *equally uncertain*, as depending wholly upon the conditions being realized.

667 “If you *should* (or *were to*) jump over the moon, I *should* call it a good leap.”

You see by this example, that the condition may be quite *impossible*, but yet the consequence would *certainly* take place, *if* the condition were realized.

668 “If I *had* any thing, I would give it you:” does the speaker mean that he *has*, or *has not* any thing? or that he *may have*, but *does not know* whether he has or not? [He means that he *has* nothing.]

669 Yes: the Perfect generally means this. The verb of the consequent clause is in the Imperfect of the Subjunctive, when the conditional action is referred to *present* time.—“I would *now* give you.”

670 “If I *had had* any thing, I *would have given* it you.” Here the *Pluperfect* of the Indicative is used in the conditional clause, and the Pluperfect of the Subjunctive in the consequence. Both the *condition* and the *consequence* are referred to a *past* time.

671 “*Had you been a little earlier*, you would have seen the Queen:” which is the *conditional* clause here? [Had you been a little earlier.]

Then what conjunction is left out? [If.]

672 Observe, that when ‘*if*’ is omitted (which it often is, when the verb of the conditional clause is in the Pluperfect, or denoted by ‘*should*,’ ‘*were to*’), the verb (in the case of a compound tense, the *auxiliary verb*) precedes its subject.

- a) "If *you* had done it," &c. (672)
 "*Had you* done it," &c.

The Pluperfect of the Indicative may also be 673
 used in the consequence, instead of the Pluperfect
 of the Subjunctive.

"If Pompey had fallen on the plains of Pharsalia, he *had died* still glorious, though unfortunate."

The conditional clause is often put in the form 674
 of a command (in the *Imperative* mood).

"Prove that to me, and I will be satisfied :"
 what is the condition of my being satisfied? [*If*
you prove that to me.]

a) "I will go, *provided* you will go with me:" 675
 what is the condition of my going?—in other
 words, "I will go, if — what?" [If you will
 go with me.]

Then '*provided*' must be (in *effect*) a conjunction
 introducing a condition.

a) "I will not go, if you will not accompany 676
 me:" can you think of any *one* conjunction instead
 of '*if*'—'*not*?' [I will not go, *unless* you ac-
 company me.]

Yes: and (though rarely *now*) '*except*' is used 677
 in the same way:—"I will not do it, *except* I am
 competent."

Other conditional forms are, '*suppose*' (that),
 '*in case*' (that); but we will not meddle with
 these at *present*.

Exercise 67.

[Separate the two clauses by a *comma* or *commas*.]

B. (*condition*.)

A. (*consequence*)

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. He failed in doing
that. | He wished him to lay 678
down the poem. |
| 2. Youth is trifled
away without improve-
ment. | Manhood will be con-
temptible and old age
miserable. |

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>(678) 3. What you tell me is true. [Express it somewhat doubtfully.]</p> <p>4. You tell him that you will reward him munificently. [Express this condition by the <i>imperative</i>.]</p> <p>5. If he had been a wiser man. [Omit <i>if</i>.]</p> <p>6. If they had had a right to act thus. [Omit <i>if</i>.]</p> <p>7. If I should ask him. [Omit <i>if</i>.]</p> <p>8. A great man speaks to you kindly. [Express it doubtfully.]</p> <p>9. He is an honest man. [Adapt this condition to the three forms of the conclusion.]</p> <p>10. <i>If</i> the poem was <i>not</i> to have been long enough to give time for creating a second interest. [Use <i>unless</i>.]</p> | <p>It shall never make me a rascal.</p> <p>He will come to you without delay.</p> <p>He would have been far less entertaining.</p> <p>They would have used it.</p> <p>I am sure he would tell me plainly.</p> <p>You feel flattered.</p> <p>a) He <i>will</i> do what he has promised.</p> <p>b) He <i>would</i> do what he has promised.</p> <p>c) He <i>would have done</i> what he had promised.</p> <p>There was great probability of the conclusion being felt after such a commencement.</p> |
|---|--|

Lesson 66.—Adversative Accessory Sentences.

679 a) "He is well-trained."

b) "He is very young."

His being very young, seems to be *against* his being well-trained, does it not? [Yes.]

680 Connect the two sentences into one compound

sentence, expressing, that *in spite of* his being (680) very young he is well-trained. [He is well-trained, *although* (or *though*) he is very young.]

'Yet,' 'nevertheless,' or 'still,' are sometimes (681) used in the principal sentence, to assert more strongly the certainty of what is maintained, in spite of the apparent difficulty caused by the previous assertion.

Since the first assertion here is at first sight (682) *adverse* to the second, the relation between two clauses of this kind is said to be *adversative*; and the accessory clause is called an *adversative* accessory clause.

a) "Whoever may oppose me, I will make the (683) attempt." The meaning here is, "I will make the attempt, *even though* a very formidable person should oppose me." But though this is *implied*, what is said is, that it is *indifferent* to me *who* my opponent may be:—let him be a very formidable one or not, in both cases alike, I will make the attempt.

In this way, 'whoever,' 'whatever,' 'however,' (684) get an *adversative* force.

It is sometimes called a *concessive* force, for it may generally be explained by "*let it be so and so*," which denotes that the point is *allowed* or *conceded*. "Whoever may oppose me, I will try:" that is, *let* the opponent be as powerful as you please, still I will try.

a) "Though you are very wise, you are quite (685) wrong."

b) "Wise *as* you are, you are quite wrong."

The second form is another way of expressing the adversative relation. A sentence of *equality* (expressed by '*as*') is placed after an adjective standing at the head of the clause.

(685)

Exercise 68.

[The sentences are to be combined. The rule for *stopping off* the adversative clause, is the same as that given for sentences of time.]

B. (Adversative clause.)	A. (Principal sentence.)
686 1. A man has the power of walking.	A man cannot walk, if there stand any wall or bar in his way.
2. A covetous man intends to give money in charity.	He has not the heart to take the guineas out of the bag.
3. It is confidently asserted by great philosophers.	I take leave to doubt the possibility of it.
4. <i>Though</i> very learned men may assert it. [Use 'whoever.']	I cannot take their testimony on trust.
5. <i>Though</i> you should urge what may seem very important. [Use 'whatever.']	My resolution is unalterably fixed.
6. He is very old. [Use a sentence of equality with 'as.']	He has just begun to learn Hebrew.
7. <i>Though</i> we may imagine these interpositions to be very frequent. [Use <i>however</i> , or 'how-soever,' instead of 'though.']	We always find the agency of second causes employed in bringing forth the destined effect.
8. <i>Though</i> they may trace the chain a long way. [Use 'however,' or 'how-soever.']	They must rest it in the divine operation at last.
9. <i>Though</i> it is very cold. [Use a clause with 'as.']	I shall certainly take a walk, if it does not snow.

Lesson 67.—Causal Sentences.—Final Sentences.

a) "A great deal of rain has fallen." 687

b) "The road will be very dirty."

Connect these two sentences, so as to make the first the *cause*, from knowing which you *conclude* that the roads will be dirty.

[The road will be very dirty, *for* a great deal of rain has fallen.]

a) "The roads are very dirty." 688

b) "A great deal of rain must have fallen."

State the first sentence (about the dirtiness of the roads), as the *effect* from which you conclude that a great deal of rain must have fallen.

[A great deal of rain must have fallen, *for* the roads are very dirty.]

Observe, then, that you use '*for*' whether you *gather* the *cause* from the *effect* (for instance, its having rained from the roads being dirty), or the *effect* from the *cause* (the dirtiness of the roads from the rain that you know to have fallen).

"I will do it, *because* you ask me:" express the same meaning with '*since*.' [*Since* you ask me, I will do it: or, I will do it, *since* you ask me.]

Can you think of *any other* particle of cause? [*As*.' *As* you ask me, I will.]

[*Purpose*.] "I am come, *that* I may see it with my own eyes." 691

Alter the *clause*, "that I may see it with my own eyes," to fit it for standing after "*I went there*." [I went there, that I *might* see it with my own eyes.]

My seeing it with my own eyes was the *end* or *purpose* with which I went there. 692

693 You have often seen *finis* at the end of a book. It is a Latin word, meaning *end*: and these sentences, which denote an *end* or *purpose*, are called "*final* sentences." They are expressed, you see, by '*that*' (a conjunction), and '*may*,' which is changed into '*might*' after a past tense:—

- 694 "I did it that I might —."
 "I was doing it that I might —."
 "I have done it that I might —."

But "I do it—(will do it, have done it)—that I may."

Exercise 69.

[To be combined as usual. The rule for *stopping off*, the same as for sentences of *time*.]

B.

(Cause, ground, motive.)

695 1. We had not a single sitting-room clear of smoke.

2. His couplets had greater variety in their movement.

3. I have reason to suppose that he has himself liberally indulged in the practice. [Use '*as*']

4. There is no society in Goslar.

5. All our little property is consumed.

6. I have called upon you.

A.

In an east wind we were miserably off.

I said I preferred Dryden.

I was treading upon tender ground.

We have not improved in our German so expeditiously as we might have done.

We must now be supported by the parish.

[Purpose: to be expressed by '*that*,' &c.]

The purpose was, the undeceiving him on the subject of his proposed tour.

7. Demosthenes shut himself up in a cave.

Demosthenes declaimed by the sea shore.

Demosthenes practised at home with a naked sword hanging over his shoulder.

(Avoid the repetition of 'Demosthenes'.)

There I shall study with (695) less distraction.

Thereby I shall accustom myself to the noise of a tumultuous assembly.

By this means I shall check an ungraceful motion to which *I am* subject.

(The purpose to be expressed in the third person.)

Lesson 68.—Sentences of Consequence, and Final Sentences Negative.

"So great was the noise, that I was glad to shut my ears." 696

After 'such,' 'so,' the accessory sentence introduced by 'that' is 'a sentence of consequence.'

"He led them safely, so that they feared not." 697

Is this the same in meaning as 'He led them so safely that they feared not?' [No.]

In the former sentence, 'so that' means 'of which the consequence was, that —'

"If one smite another so that he die." 698

What is the mood of the verb 'die?' [Subjunctive.]

Why is the Subjunctive used? [Because the dying is considered as uncertain.]

Yes: for it is dependent on the smiting; and we may put for it, 'and, in consequence thereof, he die.'

"He dodges about, so that they do (can, will) not find him." 699

"He dodged about, so that they did (could, would) not find him."

- (699) But 'so that they should not find him' denotes that the not finding him was intended to be the consequence of the dodging about.

700 In the older English, such as we have in the Bible, we meet with such sentences as

"Thou shalt stone him with stones, that he die."

How would you express 'that he die' without a verb? [To death.]

701 "Give him food, that he starve not."

How should ~~we~~ express this? [That he may not starve.]

702 "They love to pray standing in the corners of the streets, that they may be seen of men."

Do you think the verb 'may' could be omitted from this sentence? [No.]

It could not: and, as a general rule, you will find that where 'that' denotes an *intention*, it takes the simple Subjunctive only with 'not.'

703 "I beseech you that ye receive him."

Is 'receive' subjunctive? [Yes.] But of what kind is the accessory sentence? [It is a substantive sentence, being the thing besought.]

Right: and, if put in the past tense, the sentence would be, 'I besought you that ye would receive him.' Whereas, if it denoted *intention*, it would be 'I besought you that (= in order that) ye might receive him.'

704 "Give him food, that he starve not," or, "that he may not starve."

Can you express this by a different word in place of 'that—not,' or, 'that—may not?' [lest he starve.]

Yes: and our 'lest' in some other languages 705 would be rendered by words meaning 'that—not.' But does it make no difference which of these forms we use? ['Lest he starve' seems to imply something of *fear*.]

True: and in French it would be rendered by words meaning 'for fear that—not,' *de peur* (or *de crainte*) *que—ne*.

'That he may not starve' denotes a purpose 706 that something should not be; 'lest he starve,' a fear that something will be, *unless* prevented¹.

With 'lest,' would you always use the Subjunctive ('lest he *starve*')? [I should rather say, 'lest he *should* starve.']

"I do (will do, did, have done) this, lest I 707 *should* —."

And sometimes,

"I do (will do, have done) this, lest I may —."

"I did this, lest I might —."

Exercise 70.

[Combine as in the last Exercise.]

A.

1. They are blind to
an extent

They are blind

B.

(Consequence or purpose.)

in consequence of which 708
they cannot see.

consequently they cannot see.

¹ The word *lest* is derived from the Anglo-Saxon 'dhe læs dhe—' = 'the less that.' Thus, 'I fear *the-less-that* he come' = 'lest he come:' 'we must not eat it *the-less-that* we die' = 'lest we die.'

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>(708) 2. He caused them to be moved about from prison to prison
(The same</p> <p>(The same</p> <p>(The same</p> <p>3. Speak low
(The same)</p> <p>4. I wrote to him</p> <p>I will write to him</p> <p>5. Do not attempt too much at once</p> <p>6. We must dislodge the enemy
And we must do it effectually</p> <p>7. When Nero murdered his mother, he did it at a distance</p> <p>8. I intend to lay aside a whole week for this</p> <p>9. You wrote in high spirits about my book, and though you said much in its praise, suppressed more</p> | <p><i>consequently</i> the writs could not find them.</p> <p>with the notion that he intended this to be the consequence.)</p> <p>so as to mark the simple intention.)</p> <p>so as to denote <i>for fear</i> of their finding them.</p> <p><i>because then they will</i> not hear you.</p> <p><i>because otherwise it is to be feared</i> they will hear you.</p> <p><i>because then he would</i> not think I had forgotten him.</p> <p><i>because otherwise I fear</i> he will think I have forgotten him.</p> <p><i>for fear of being</i> discouraged.</p> <p><i>otherwise they might</i> prevent our passage.</p> <p><i>as the means of their not</i> returning.</p> <p>(his purpose being) <i>not</i> to see it with his own eyes.</p> <p><i>then</i> the scheme of my thoughts <i>will</i> not be broken.</p> <p><i>because you feared to</i> hurt my delicacy.</p> |
|--|---|

10. I seldom read a letter immediately before I answer it *then (perhaps) my letters (708) will not be exactly an echo to those which I receive.*

(Invert the clauses.)

11. There is nothing in my story that can possibly be worth your knowledge; yet I will relate it. *as I fear to treat you with a reserve which, at your hands, I have not experienced.*

(Insert this after 'yet.')

Lesson 69.—Abbreviated Accessory Sentences.

Relative Sentences.

You recollect (627) that a relative sentence, 709 such as "a man *whom I saw yesterday*," is very like — what? [An attributive notion attached to a substantive.]

"Mr. Williams, who is a barrister." 710

Can you shorten this sentence? ['Mr. Williams, a barrister,' or, 'the barrister.']

Yes; and then you say that 'a barrister' is — what? (578.) [*In apposition* to 'Mr. Williams.']

And if you would shorten "A servant who is 711 grateful," you would say — what? [A grateful servant.]

In these examples the relative or attributive sentence consists merely of — what? [Relative — copula — predicate.]

And in the shortened or abbreviated expression, i. e. when you drop the relative and the copula, the predicate, if it be a substantive, becomes —? [A substantive in apposition.] If it be an adjective, it becomes —? [An attributive adjective.]

- 712 Abbreviate "A bird which is seldom seen in our country." [A bird seldom seen in our country.]

The words 'seldom seen in our country' are said to form an *abbreviated accessory sentence*, the accessory sentence being, in this instance, a *relative* (or *attributive*) sentence.

You have formed it simply by omission of the relative and the copula.

- 713 Abbreviate "He may be compared to a soldier who deserts his post." [To a soldier *deserting* his post.]

What change has taken place here? [I have dropt the relative, and changed the verb '*deserts*' into a participle.]

- 714 "The wealth (which) we gain by industry."

Express the relative sentence with a passive verb. [The wealth which is gained by industry.]

Abbreviate this. [The wealth gained by industry.]

Then, where you can put a relative sentence into an equivalent form, consisting of relative—copula—predicate, this can be abbreviated? [Yes.]

"The person for whom they sent."

"The person who was sent for (by them)."

"The person sent for (by them)."

- 715 "The ground out of which it grew."

Can you abbreviate this in the same manner? [No : because I cannot substitute a passive, and

make 'which' its subject, in the relative sentence. (715)]

"The coast on which we are thrown, or the coast we are thrown on, by accident."

Can you abbreviate this? [I cannot say, 'The coast thrown on.']

"When Edward III. lay expiring, he was left without one domestic *that might close* his eyes." 716

This may be abbreviated into, 'Without one domestic *to close* his eyes.'

"He sought a place in which to lie:" abbreviated, 'a place *to lie in*.'

"He gave me a knife to cut with." Expand this into a relative sentence. [A knife with which I might cut.]

"There is much work which I must (or, have 717 to) do."

How will you abbreviate this? [There is much work *for me to do*.]

Yes: when the subject of the verb which passes into the infinitive is necessary to be expressed, we prefix it (in the objective case) with *for* to the infinitive. Thus, "There are many books which Henry may (or must) read," will become ——? [There are many books for Henry to read.]

Put it into the passive. ['There are many books which may,' or 'must,' or 'are to be,' 'read by Henry.' 'There are many books *to be read by Henry*.']

"I saw a plant which had } a white blossom." 718
—— a plant having }

Can you think of any little word that may be

- (718) put for 'having?' [A plant with a white blossom.]

"A flower which has a sweet smell." [A flower with, or of, a sweet smell.]

So "I saw a man *without* a hat" is equivalent to —? [A man *who had no hat*.]

719. Change 'with a white blossom,' 'of a sweet smell,' into attributive adjectives. [A white-blossoming plant. A sweet-smelling flower.]

Then 'with a white blossom,' 'of a sweet smell,' are attributives? [Yes.]

What sorts of words or phrases can be used attributively? [See 576.]

- 720 "The soldiers who were keeping guard."

Abbreviate this. [The soldiers *who were on guard*. The soldiers *on guard*.]

Exercise 71. .

[Abbreviate the relative clauses.—The abbreviated clause is stopt off by a comma when it does not adhere very closely to its antecedent substantive. See Ex, 64.]

- 721 1. It was a maxim of Cato to combat all power *which was not built* upon the laws.

2. For eight centuries the English and French have been making great wars with each other, *which were occasioned* by small mistakes.

3. On what coast soever we are thrown by accident, we shall meet with men and women *who are endowed* with the same faculties, and *who are born* under the same laws of nature; we shall see the same virtues and vices, *which flow* from the same principles, but *which are varied* in a thousand different and contrary modes.

4. From the days of Plato down to these, a

soldier has always been compared to a soldier (721) *who is* (or *should be*) *keeping guard*, (and) *who deserts* his post.

5. Are not the enemies *whom we make* by truth better than the friends *we obtain* by flattery?

6. For old men life has no new story *which might make* them smile.

7. The only way *in which* a man *may gain* true honour, is to deserve it.

8. The Bible is not a book *which one should read* through once or twice, and then *lay it* by.

(Express this, *a.* passively, *b.* actively.)

9. It was a long and weary way *which* a man *must go who had* no companion *that might beguile* his fatigue.

10. All these are blessings *for which we may be* thankful when we have them, and *for which we should pray* when we have them not.

11. The religion *which the Bible teaches* would turn the whole earth into a garden *in which* every kind of peace *might flourish*.

Lesson 70.—Abbreviated Accessory Sentences.

Substantive Sentences : a. Subjective.

“That we should do good is a duty we owe to 722 all men.”

What is the subject? [That we should do good.]

This subject, then, is a sentence — of what kind? [A substantive accessory sentence.]

Can you shorten it? [I can say, ‘To do good is a duty,’ &c.]

- (722) Yes: and 'to do good' is — what? [An infinitive.]

We say, then, that 'to do good,' in this connexion, is *an abbreviated substantive sentence*.

In English we often use the abbreviated form where, in other languages, we should have to use the other form.

- 723 Especially when the subject of a sentence is first vaguely expressed by 'it,' and then described by an accessory substantive sentence following, we use the infinitive:

"It is right that we should always speak the truth."

"It is right always to speak the truth."

"It grieves me that I am obliged —."

"It grieves me to be obliged —."

What becomes of the subject of the accessory sentence in these examples? [It disappears.]

- 724 "It is said (thought, believed, or 'it seems') that he is ill."

Alter the form of the sentence so that 'he' shall be subject to the verb of the principal sentence. [He is said, &c., he seems, &c., *to be ill*.]

- 725 Could we abbreviate, in the same manner, "It grieves me that you are obliged —?" [No.]

Why not? [Because '*you*' is necessary to the sense, and we cannot say, 'It grieves me you to be obliged —'.]

But now consider how you can abbreviate, with an infinitive, "It is nothing new that a man should be rich to-day and a beggar to-morrow." [It is nothing new for a man to be, &c.] (See 717.)

Can you express this without 'it?' [For a man to be, &c., is nothing new.]

How would you abbreviate "That Charles (725) should have done this was very surprising?" [For Charles to have done this, &c.]

Recollect now what you have learned about 726 "participial substantives" or "infinitives in —ing" (162—164), and try whether you can substitute that form for the accessory clause in this sentence :

"That he acted in this treacherous manner was the cause of his misfortunes." [His acting (or, his having acted) in this treacherous manner was the cause, &c.]

What becomes of the subject 'he?' [It is changed into the possessive 'his.']

Suppose you omit 'his?' [Then I should say, *The acting*, &c.]

"The fellow's thrusting himself in our way was 727 the cause of this accident." Expand this. [That the fellow thrust himself in our way was, &c.]

The subject of the accessory sentence is expressed by the possessive, or, as it is called, *the subject-genitive*, when the verb passes into the participial substantive. Thus, here '*the fellow's*' is subject-genitive to the participial substantive '*thrusting*,' because this combination represents 'the fellow thrust,' where 'the fellow' is subject to the verb 'thrust.'

But 'The fellow thrusting himself in our way 728 was,' &c., means, 'The fellow, *by thrusting himself in our way*, was,' &c. In the former, the subject of the verb 'was' is the participial substantive '*thrusting*;' in the latter, the subject is 'the fellow,' and '*thrusting*' is the participle.

What has been said of the subject applies also 729

(729) to the predicate after the copula, as, "Your-best-plan (subj.) is (cop.) to-do-this (pred.)."

730 In what different ways, then, may a substantive accessory sentence, being the subject or predicate of the principal sentence, be abbreviated? [1. By the infinitive, as 'to be;' 2. by the *infinitive* with *for* and the subject of the accessory sentence, as 'for him to be;' 3. by the participial substantive.]

Exercise 72.

[Abbreviate the substantive sentences.]

- 731 1. The most important lesson is, *that we should* know ourselves.
2. *That one should be* without any wants is the divine prerogative.
3. *That you should behave* in this way is the height of ingratitude.
4. *That one should pamper and indulge* the will is as bad as *that one should give* strong meats to a man in a raging fever. It is *that one should add* fuel to the fire.
5. *That you have* chosen me to be the leader of the colony, and *that you call* the city after my name, are honours sufficient to content me.
6. There is no greater inlet to vice and misery of every kind than *this, that we know* not how to pass our vacant hours.
7. The true test of a great man is, *that he has* been in advance of his age.
8. The chief obstacle that stood in the way of Francis's liberty was, *that the emperor continued* to insist on the restitution of Burgundy.
9. Truth is a great stronghold fortified by God

and nature; and diligence is properly *this, that* (731) *the understanding lays siege* to it.

10. In some things it is much more difficult *that a man should* be ignorant of his duty than *that he should* learn it; as it would be much harder *that he*, while he is awake, *should* keep his eyes always shut, than open.

Lesson 71.—Abbreviated Accessory Sentences.

Substantive Sentences : b. Objective.

“He professes that he is your friend.” [*To be* 732 your friend.]

The accessory sentence is substantive and accusative object to the verb of the leading sentence.

How is it abbreviated? [*By the infinitive.*]

“I perceived that he was ill.” [*Him to be ill.*] 733

Here the subject of the accessory sentence, being different from that of the principal sentence, becomes ——? [*Accusative to the leading verb.*]

“I advise (order, ask, permit, persuade, &c.) him to do it.”

Express this in the passive. [*He is advised, &c. to do it.*]

You see, then, that to *some* verbs the accessory sentence, being its accusative object, may be expressed by the accusative with an infinitive.

With some of these verbs the ‘to’ of the infinitive is, or, may be, omitted.

a “Let (i. e. suffer) that he do it.” [*Let him do it.*]

(734) *b*) "Bid (me) that I come." [Bid *me to come*.
Bid *me come*.]

c) "I will make (i. e. cause) that he shall say."
[I will *make him* say.]

d) "I will have (i. e. cause) that he shall be brought."
[I will have *him brought*, for, *to be brought*.]

e) "Would you have (i. e. do you wish) that I should say?" [Would you have *me say* ?]

735 In like manner, with verbs of feeling and perceiving, such as hear, see, feel, &c. ["I heard him say." "I saw him fall." "I felt my spirits sink."]

Combine the sentences :

"I saw the sun — the sun rose." [I saw the sun rise.]

"I watched the sun — the sun was rising." [I watched the sun rising.]

"I heard the man — the man was saying." [I heard the man saying.]

"I thought — he was mistaken." [I thought him mistaken.]

When these sentences are expressed passively, the 'to' is used. 'He is made to say.' 'He was heard to say.' 'The sun was seen to rise.'

736 The infinitive, 'to —,' preceded by 'for,' with a substantive or pronoun, is put to verbs and phrases which take their object with 'for.' Thus:

"I long for (this, namely) that he should come."
[I long for him to come.]

"I arrange for (this, namely) that the money should be paid." [I arrange for the money to be paid.]

So "I shall be glad for you to come." (736)

The participial substantive, as an accusative 737
object, is used in the same way as it is in the
abbreviation of subject-sentences.

"Can he deny that he came?" [Can he deny
having come ?]

"Excuse (this, namely) that I come so early."
[Excuse my coming so early.]

"They prevented (this, namely) that the em-
peror should come to their assistance." [They
prevented the emperor's coming to their assist-
ance.]

What does the subject of the accessory sentence
become? [The possessive of a pronoun, 'the
genitive by inflexion' of a substantive.]

An accessory sentence, abbreviated into the 738
form of a participial substantive, may enter into
various objective relations with prepositions: 'of,'
'at,' 'by,' 'with,' &c.

"Apprised of the emperor's having entered
Milan."

"Vexed at his friend's having to complain of
the servants' neglecting his guests."

"Concerned for his having been obliged to
wait."

"Obliged by Mr. A.'s undertaking to write."

"Thankful for his having recovered."

"The news of the duke's having raised the
siege."

"This catastrophe was the cause of Mr. Rigby 739
resuming his old position."

What do you observe on this sentence? [It
ought to be, *Mr. Rigby's*.]

(739) Yes: to say, 'the cause of Mr. Rigby resuming,' is as ungrammatical as if we were to say, 'the cause of *him* resuming,' instead of 'the cause of *his* resuming.'

740 But sometimes the subject of the sentence to be abbreviated is a word or phrase which does not admit of a genitive. Thus:

"There was a report (of this), that the French would invade England."

As we cannot say, "There was a report of the French's invading England," we say, "There was a report of *the French invading England*."

Here 'invading' is not participial substantive but participle.

So, to abbreviate, "In consequence of this, namely, that a great deal of rain had fallen in the night," we say, "In consequence of a great deal of rain having fallen in the night." Here 'having fallen' is —? [Participle.]

741 *Dependent Questions.*] Combine the two sentences, "How may I value your kindness?" "I know." [I know how I may value your kindness.]

Can you abbreviate this? [I know how to value.]

Yes: and the infinitive with 'to' is the only form of abbreviation for dependent questions; and this can be used only when the subject of the verb in the question is the same as that of the verb in the governing sentence, or else is easily known: thus, "he could not tell me which way (I was) to go."

Exercise 73.

[Abbreviate the clauses marked by *italics*.]

1. I expected *that I should* have been with you ⁷⁴² yesterday, but perhaps you did not wish *that I should* arrive so soon.

2. The Epicureans held *that* pleasure *is* the chief good of nature.

3. The religion of the old puritans suffered *that they should* trample upon other men's freedom of conscience.

4. The Stoics held *that none was* truly wise but themselves, and affirmed that all sins were equal; *that if (one) killed* a dunghill cock without reason, *it was* the same crime as *if (one) killed* a parent.

5. Do you want } *that I should* think *that* he
Would you have } *is* an honest fellow?

6. I will go and see *that* your commands *are* obeyed, and *that* the thing *is* done as you wish *that it should* be.

7. She was annoyed at *this, that the children ran* in and out perpetually and *interrupted* the conversation.

8. Much depends on *this, that you observe* the rules.

9. The servant was afraid of *this, that his master would dismiss* him from his service for *this, that he had* so abominably cheated him.

10. As there appeared to be small likelihood of *this, that the enemy would rally* from their flight, he gave orders for *this, that they should* *sup* immediately and then *prepare* for the march.

(742) 11. He who is truly polite knows *how he may please* without adulation.

12. The stranger seemed to hesitate which resolution *he should take*.

13. He could not make up his mind *whether he should go on or turn back*.

Lesson 72.—Abbreviated Adverbial Sentences of Time.

- 743 a) "Will he come when (he is) sent for?"
 b) "To be left till (it shall be) called for."
 c) "You might do this while (you are) marching."

These sentences are abbreviated by leaving out subject and copula, and retaining the participle with the conjunction of time.

But, observe, that here the subject of the accessory sentence is the same as that of the governing sentence.

- 744 "He came when (it was) possible."
 "Stay as long as (it may be) convenient."

Is the subject here the same in both clauses?
 [No: the subject of the accessory clause is the indefinite 'it.']

True: but you can alter the sentence so as to make the subject the same? [*He came when he found it possible. Stay (you), as long as (you find it) convenient.*]

- 745 In like manner, an accessory sentence of *place* is sometimes abbreviated.

"The enemy, *where* (they were) visible ——."

“The fact, *so far as* (it is) ascertained —.” (745)

“The birds, *wherever* (they are) seen —.”

Another way of abbreviating accessory sentences of time is, to change the verb into a participial substantive, governed by a preposition of time. Thus :

“When (as soon as) I return home, I will attend to it.” [*On returning* home —.]

“*The instant that* the clock strikes twelve.”

How would this be abbreviated? [At the instant of the *clock's* striking twelve.]

Why not, ‘of the *clock* striking?’ [Because that would make ‘striking’ a participle, agreeing with ‘clock,’ whereas ‘striking’ is a participial substantive, and ‘clock’s’ its subject-genitive.]

Abbreviate, “After he had said this.” [After saying this.]

“Since I wrote that letter.” [‘Since writing,’ or, ‘since the time of my writing.’]

“When I thus speak, I do not mean —.” [In thus speaking, I do not mean —.]

“Having said this, he departed.”

What is represented by the participial clause? 747
[An accessory sentence of time, ‘When he had said this.’]

“Looking out of window, he chanced to see —.” 748
[While he was looking, &c.]

“And he, leaping up, stood and walked —.” 749

Does the ‘leaping up’ precede the ‘standing’?
[Yes.]

- (749) To express it more exactly we should say —— ?
[Having leapt up.]

Which means —— ? [When he had leapt up.]

- 750 “The two armies being thus employed, Cælius began ——.”

What does this mean ? [While the two armies were thus employed.]

Is the subject the same as that of the principal sentence ? [No.]

- 751 The noun and participle in this construction are said to be *put absolutely*. In Latin this construction takes the ablative case, in Greek the genitive, but also the accusative. In English the case is the nominative, i. e. we should say,

“He having gone, the rest remained,” not
“Him having gone, ——.”

“He alone excepted,” not “him alone excepted.”

Lesson 73.—Abbreviated Adverbial Sentences.

Conditional and Adversative.

- 752 The abbreviation of these sentences follows the same rules as in the sentences of time.

“He will do it, if properly asked” (if he be properly asked).

“He will do it, if possible” (if it be possible).

“Though very young, he is well trained” (though he is very young).

“However thwarted, he would not give over.”

“I will attempt it, however difficult.”

You perceive, that these sentences are abbreviated by omission of subject and copula, and re-

taining the predicate word with the conditional or (752) adversative conjunction or conjunctive adverb.

"It shall be done, on your consenting to stay" 753 (if you consent to stay).

"In the event of their coming, we will go" ('if they come,' or, 'should come').

"But for his being so obstinate" (if he had not been so obstinate).

"You cannot see it without going round it" (unless you go round it).

"For all his trying so hard, he could not do it" (for all that, notwithstanding that, he tried so hard).

"He will speak without being pressed" (though he be not pressed).

Here the abbreviation is effected by the participial substantive with a preposition or some other governing phrase.

"Failing in this, he must die" (if he fail in 754 this).

The abbreviation is effected by the participle.

"Wind and weather permitting, the ship will 755 sail on such a day" (if wind and weather permit).

The abbreviation is effected by —? [The nominative absolute.]

A conditional accessory sentence may be sometimes abbreviated by an infinitive, as, "to do this would be very ungrateful" (it would be very ungrateful if one should do this). "For Charles to do this would —" (were Charles to do this it would —). "I should not be surprised to learn —" (if I were to learn —).

And so the accessory sentence of time, "It surprised him to learn —." (when he learnt).

Exercise 74.

[Abbreviate as shown in Lessons 73, 74.—When the abbreviated accessory clause precedes the principal clause, place a comma after it: if *inserted* into the principal clause, let it be stopt off by a comma before and after it.]

(‘When,’ ‘if,’ &c., with the *participle* or other *predicate-word*: 743—745 and 752.)

757 1. *When they were besieged*, they defended themselves with great bravery.

2. Newton, *when he was intent* upon working out a problem, would sometimes leave his dinner untasted for several hours.

3. They knew that *if they were found out*, they would be severely punished, unless they were begged off by their powerful friends.

4. He declared that, *however and by whomsoever he might be opposed*, he would, *if he were restored* to health, complete the work *as soon as it should be possible*.

(*The Participial Substantive*: 746 and 753.)

5. Parmenio, *after that he had secured* the nearest maritime cities, had taken possession of Issus.

6. He is steady and diligent in his business, not from covetousness, but to the end that *when he shall have* (first) *provided* for his own wants and those of his family, (after this) he may have something to give to him that needeth.

7. Sir Philip Sidney was wounded by a musket ball in the thigh, as he mounted a fresh horse *after he had had* his own killed under him.

8. *After that he had been* revolving and tumbling about in his mind one poor sentence for above four

years together, his memory happened to fail him (757) just in the nick, when he came to the very use and application of what he had been so long thinking about.

9. *Since I wrote the foregoing*, I hear that my friend has recovered his fortune.

10. *If we suppose this, that such and such things continue* in their being, such and such events certainly follow. [Say, 'Upon the supposition of——.']

11. *Unless I read* the book through, I cannot give an opinion as to its merits.

12. *But that you loitered*, we should have been saved.

13. He sets up for a critic, *though he does not understand* a word of the original language.

Exercise 75.

[The same continued.]

(*The Participle* : 747—749 and 754.)

1. Baptized children *if they die* in their infancy are certainly saved.

2. *If I neglected* this, I should have betrayed my subject.

3. Retirement, *if (or when) it is managed* as it ought to be, will be found profitable.

4. *Though I was* already overwhelmed with despair, I was not yet sunk into the bottom of the gulf.

5. *When he had* vainly endeavoured to bring them to a right mind, he told them that, *if they*

(757) *were left* to themselves, they would inevitably perish.

6. *If* (or *though*) *we grant* it to be so, shall we say that *when he shall have come* to a better mind he will make amends?

7. I remember a line in the *Odyssey* which, when (or *if*) it is literally translated, says, that there is nothing in the world more impudent than the belly.

(*The Nominative Absolute*: 750, 751, and 755.)

8. *When* the pass *was* (or, *had been*) *secured*, he allowed his troops to repose there till morning.

9. I leave you to judge whether, *when* such a labour *is once achieved*, I shall not determine to turn it to some account. (*Express this also by the Active Participle.*)

10. *If these laws be repealed*, the fences of our civil peace and quiet are gone.

11. *If* (or, *though*) *the wisdom*, or *the want of wisdom*, that we observe, or think we observe, in those that rule us, *be* (put) *entirely out of the question*, I cannot look upon, &c. (Omit 'put.')

12. If *I* were to say this, it would be the height of absurdity. (See 756. 'I' is *emphatic*.)

Lesson 74.—Abbreviated Adverbial Sentences.

758 *Of Comparison.*] "He managed matters so as to satisfy everybody." This, expressed with an adverbial sentence, would be, '—— in such a way as satisfied everybody,' which is a sentence of comparison; or, '—— so that he satisfied everybody,' which is a sentence of consequence.

“I had more prudence than to take her counsel” (758)
(than that I should take ——).

“He is too conceited to take advice.”

The meaning is, ‘he is more conceited than that 759
he could (or, *would like*, &c.) to take advice.’

Express in like manner, “This work is greater 760
than that Charles should undertake it.” [This
work is too great for Charles to undertake.]

Express it passively. [To be undertaken by
Charles.]

In like manner :

761

“Be so good as to write to me.”

“Have the goodness to say” (‘have that good-
ness,’ or, ‘so much goodness, as that you would
say.’).

“It is enough to drive one mad.”

All these (759—761) are sentences of compa-
rison, which are also sentences of consequence.

After ‘do more than,’ ‘do nothing but’ = ‘other 762
than,’ and similar phrases, the *to* of the infinitive
is dropt. “He did little more than laugh.” “He
did nothing but laugh.”

Of manner.] Adverbial sentences which answer 763
the question ‘How?’ ‘in what manner?’ are
abbreviated by the participle. “He spoke as
sorrowing.” “He answered as if offended” (as
if he were offended).

“The Romans took their meals lying, not 764
sitting.” (In what manner? ‘So that they lay,
not sat.’)

“He came crying” (in such sort that he cried).

(764) Here, also, we may use the nominative absolute :
 “The priest stood up, the congregation kneeling:”
 which, however, may be explained as an abbreviated sentence of time, ‘while the congregation knelt.’

765 “They came (how?) with their clothes rent”
 (having their clothes rent).

766 “He stole into the room unperceived.”

The negative notion may also be expressed by
 ‘without,’ followed by the participial substantive :
 ‘without being perceived,’ ‘without our perceiving
 him.’

Exercise 76.

767 1. The frost was *so hard that it completely froze*
 the lake.

2. The lake was frozen *sufficiently hard that it*
should bear a waggon and horses.

3. He honoured me *so far as this, that he con-*
sulted me upon the subject of his new work.

4. Though my spirits are seldom so bad but I
 can write verse, they are often at so low an ebb
that they make the production of a letter impos-
 sible.

5. He is *more cunning than that he should fall*
 into that snare.

(1) Retain ‘*more.*’ (2) Express it with ‘*too.*’

(3) With ‘*enough.*’

6. He had done little *more than this, that he*
cast a bridge over the chaos which he ruled.

7. This is an unusually high office *that it should*
be held by a foreigner.

Express it (1) passively. (2) Actively.

8. This task is *too hard that it should be under-* (767) *taken* without careful preparation.

9. He has done little more *than this, that he has made* a beginning.

10. This argument is *so precarious that it cannot* satisfy a man of judgement.

11. He bade me good bye *in such sort, that he shook* me warmly by the hand.

12. We must try to effect our escape *in such manner that we shall not let* our design be suspected. (Use 'without.')

13. He came at full speed, *in such sort that his horse was covered* with foam. (Use the nom. absolute.)

Lesson 75.—Abbreviated Adverbial Sentences.

Causal Sentences.

"The boy was punished for coming too late to 768 school:" "for not having learnt his lesson."

"He caught cold by being exposed to a draught of air."

"From your having been so long silent, I feared you must be ill."

Here the ground, cause, or reason is expressed by the participial substantive under the government of various prepositions, so that the abridged sentence becomes an ablative object (738) to the verb of the sentence.

"As he was afraid, he hid himself." 769

Can you express the accessory sentence by a participle? [Being afraid, he hid himself.]

"Faith without works is dead, being alone."

(769) The participle means, 'as,' 'since,' 'because it is alone.'

770 This use of the participle for the abridgement of causal accessory sentences is very common in our language. (In translating into German, for instance, you will often find it necessary to render the English participle by an accessory sentence.)

771 But it is especially in this use of the participle that uninstructed persons are often betrayed into bad grammar. To avoid such mistakes, consider whether the participle has an expressed noun or pronoun substantive to agree with.

"As I am very desirous to see you, I purpose — :"—"Being very desirous —, I purpose." Who is desirous? 'I,' which is the expressed subject of the principal sentence.

772 "It seemed good to me also, as I had perfect understanding of all things from the first, to write unto thee —" (— to me also, having had perfect understanding —).

Here 'having had' is attributively in concord with 'me,' which is the object of the predicate 'seemed good.'

773 But suppose a letter to begin thus :

"Hearing of your return to C., and wishing much to see you, it will be esteemed a great favour, if you will name an hour when you will be at leisure —."

Is this correct? [No.]—And the reason is, because the participles represent, 'as I have heard — and wish —,' and 'I' is not expressed in the principal sentence.

774 Retaining the participles, how might you alter the sentence so as to make it correct? [Hearing,

&c., and wishing much to see you, I write to say (774) that it will be, &c.]

“Mr. B. having apprised me of your wishes, I 775 beg to assure you —.”

Is this correct? [Yes.]

What do you call this construction? [The nominative absolute.]

What other kind of sentences may be abbreviated in this form? [Sentences of time, of condition, and of manner.]

“They, having left him at Rome, were surprised 776 to find him on their arrival at Naples.”

Is this the nominative absolute? [No.]

Why not? [Because ‘they’ is the subject of the verb ‘were surprised.’]

“Having left him at Rome, it surprised them 777 to find him —.” This sentence is correct, for
(1) ‘Having left’ may be attributive to ‘them.’
(2) ‘It surprised them’ is equivalent to ‘they were surprised.’

Sometimes we have occasion to begin an abbreviated causal sentence with a phrase such as ‘in consequence of,’ ‘because of,’ ‘by reason of.’

Consider whether it would be correct to prefix such a phrase to a sentence beginning with a noun and participle put absolutely. (Comp. 740.)

For instance :

“It was only in consequence of the enemy having taken this position that Cæsar determined —.”

To test this, in the sentence ‘The enemy having taken this position, Cæsar,’ &c., substitute for ‘the enemy’ the pronoun of the third person

- (778) plural. 'They having taken this position, Cæsar,' &c.

Can you prefix to this the words 'in consequence of?' [No: I cannot say, 'in consequence of they having ——.']

You must say —— what? [In consequence of *their* having.]

And then, 'having taken' is —— what? [The participial substantive.]

Right: and, therefore, to be strictly correct, you must say in the sentence above given ——? [It was only in consequence of the enemy's having taken ——.]

- 779 But it will often happen that the substantive is incapable of the genitive inflexion: for instance, "Rain having fallen in the night, the garden looked refreshed."

Can you say, "In consequence of rain's having fallen in the night, the garden," &c. [No.]

- 780 Hence, though such a mode of expression is not strictly correct, a phrase which might be put absolutely may be put under the government of a preposition, when the genitive inflexion cannot be used.

"It was only in consequence of rain having fallen ——," or, "—— of a strong body of horse having been sent forward."

(In these expressions we may, perhaps, still consider the word in 'ing' as participial substantive, and the noun substantive as its subject.)

- 781 This irregular construction may sometimes be avoided by using the impersonal subject 'there.' Thus:

"There has been much rain." (781)

"There having been much rain." (Nom. abs.)

"In consequence of there having been much rain." (Particip. subst.)

Exercise 77.

(Use the participial substantive : 768.)

1. *Because they wrote and published* a pamph- 782
let against Queen Elizabeth's marriage, two poor
fellows had their right hands chopped off.

2. William the Conqueror, *when he introduced
his French, caused thereby* a considerable change
in the speech of the nation.

(Use the participle : 769.)

3. I remember Southampton well, *as I have
spent* much time there.

4. I was a sailor, and *as I was* of Mr. A.'s
party, who was himself born one, (I) was often
pressed into the service. But I gave myself an
air and wore trowsers; I had no genuine right to
that honour, *as I disliked* much to be occupied in
great waters except in the finest weather.

5. Though the hypocrite's hope should not by
any severe and boisterous judgements be forcibly
rent and torn out of his heart, yet through its
own native weakness *for-that it has lasted* its
term, and like a lamp or candle *for-that it has
consumed* its little stock, it must die, and sink,
and drop away of itself.

(Use the nom. absolute: 775.)

6. *As the water of the Oxus was so loaded* with
clay *that it was* scarcely drinkable, wells were dug
for a better supply. (Change also *that it was*.)

- (782) 7. *Since that day was a festival*, Quintus was obliged to spend it at Arpinum.

8. *As both Elizabeth and Mary were artful and treacherous, and as neither ever trusted the other*, it was not likely that they could ever make an agreement.

(Express as in 777.)

9. *As I have distinguished* by name the majority of the few for whom I entertain a friendship, it seemed to me that it would be unjustifiably negligent to omit yourself.

10. *As no other way had been discovered* by which they might cross the mountains, they were obliged to make a long circuit. (*Begin this sentence with* ‘in consequence of.’ 780, 781.)

Lesson 76.—Abbreviated Adverbial Sentences.

Final Sentences.

- 783 “I read to learn.”

What does the infinitive in this sentence denote? [The purpose: ‘that I may learn.’]

What in the sentence, “I wish to learn?” [The thing wished: ‘that I may learn.’]

Yes: and in translating into other languages, you will need to distinguish carefully these two uses of the infinitive. (In Latin prose the infinitive never denotes the purpose.)

- 784 What words may we prefix to the infinitive to denote the purpose more clearly? [‘In order to,’ ‘on purpose to,’ ‘with intent to.’]

- 785 “I have brought this that you may look at it.”

Abbreviate this. [I have brought this *for you* (785) *to look at.*]

“To get praise, you must try to deserve it.” 786
(=That you may get.)

In what relation does the infinitive clause ‘to get praise,’ stand to the clause ‘you must deserve it?’ [It denotes the consequence intended.]

“But to end my story, when Richard returned he found,” &c.

The infinitive, ‘to end my story,’ is independent of the following clause? [Yes.]

It depends on a sentence understood, such as, ‘I will only remark that —.’ (We may call it ‘the infinitive absolute.’)

“I have called upon you, that I might ask 787 you,” or, “to ask you —.”

Can you express this with the participial substantive? [I have called upon you for the purpose of asking you.]

So, ‘with the view of,’ ‘for the sake of,’ ‘by way of,’ ‘with a view to,’ ‘in order to,’ and sometimes simply ‘for,’ as “For the quieting of his conscience, he told him —.”

The ‘negative purpose’ or ‘consequence to be 788 averted,’ expressed by ‘that—not,’ may be abbreviated by the infinitive ‘not to.’

“That I may not weary you, I will conclude —.” (Not to weary you.)

When ‘lest’ evidently implies fear, we may say 789 ‘for fear of’ with the participial substantive.

Exercise 78.

790

(Use 'to —' to express the purpose: 783.)

1. *That they might* return thanks to heaven for these diabolical murders, the pope and his train actually went in public procession at Rome: and as if this were not shame enough for them, they had a medal struck to commemorate the event.

2. A special ambassador came from France *that he might intercede* for Mary's life.

3. I have brought a passage *that you may explain it*.

4. He has evidently done this *on purpose that he might annoy* me.

(Use 'in order to' to express the purpose: 784.)

5. *That we may set* this matter in a clear light let us take a review of the whole passage.

6. *That I may get at the truth*, I shall first ask a few seemingly irrelevant questions.

7. *That the understanding may enter* aright into the contemplation of these high truths, it is necessary that all low and partial conceptions be discarded. (Use the infinitive 'to enter:' 785.)

8. (The same with 'in order to' and the participial substantive: 787.)

9. He entered a cottage *that he might ascertain* some particulars. (Say 'for the purpose of.')

10. *Lest she should be* overwhelmed with the sudden grief, break the tidings to her cautiously. (Say 'For fear of,' 789.)

*Lesson 77.—Co-ordinate Sentences.**The Participle.*

When two sentences, of which neither is 791
accessory to the other, together form a compound
 sentence, they are said to be *co-ordinate*: and
 accessory sentences are said to be *subordinate* to
 the sentence to which they are accessory.

“I called upon him, and found him at home.” 792
 Here the two sentences are *co-ordinate*. “When
 I called, he was not at home.” Are these co-
 ordinate? [No, ‘When I called’ is accessory or
 subordinate to ‘he was not at home.’]

“Either I mistake, or you said —.” Are 793
 these co-ordinate? [Yes.] Make the first clause
 subordinate. [‘Unless I mistake, you said.’] The
 second. [‘I mistake, if you did not say.’]

“He sat and mused on what he had heard.” 794
 If I would express these two acts (sitting and
 musing) as a single thought, i. e. as two thoughts
 connected into one, I should say, ‘He *sat musing*
 on what he had heard.’

What kind of *accessory* sentence does the par-
 ticiple here represent? [An adverbial sentence
 of manner.]

Yes: for it supplies the answer to the question
 ‘He sat—how?’ (764.)

When two thoughts which in co-ordination 795
 are coupled by ‘and’ are thus connected into one
 thought, the thought which is abbreviated into
 the participle may, in a sentence of this kind, be
 called *the complement of the predicate*.

“He lies in bed, and is awake, and his thoughts 796
 toss restlessly to and fro.”

- (796) Express this with a single verb. [He lies in bed awake, his thoughts tossing restlessly to and fro.]

How is the second clause abbreviated? [‘And is’ is changed to the participle ‘being,’ which is omitted.]

How is the last clause abbreviated? [By the nominative absolute.]

- 797 “He, *when he had leapt up*, stood and walked.”

Express this by *co-ordinate* sentences. [He *leapt up and stood and walked*.]

Alter it so as to get rid of the first ‘and.’ [He, leaping up, stood and walked.]

- 798 “His ashes *were conveyed to Rome* and deposited in a vault of his Alban villa.”

If it were necessary or convenient to express the first clause as an accessory sentence of time, you would say —? [When his ashes had been conveyed to Rome, they were deposited —.]

And if you had occasion to express it attributively, you would say —? [His ashes, which were conveyed to Rome, were deposited —.]

Express the same clause by a participle. [His ashes, being conveyed to Rome, were deposited.]

- 799 The participle, therefore, is often used as abbreviation of a *co-ordinate* sentence, which *co-ordinate* sentence would not, without some particular reason of necessity or convenience, be expressed as an *accessory* or *subordinate* sentence.

- 800 By thus using the participle we are enabled to get rid of too many verbs connected by ‘and.’

A sentence enlarged by one or more subordinate accessory sentences is called a *period*, and the sentences of which it consists are said to be combined *periodically*.

To *combine sentences periodically* is, therefore, to change *co-ordinate* sentences into *sub-ordinate* ones.

"The army wished to avoid the heat, and therefore had begun its march before day-break, and towards noon had nearly reached its halting-place for the night."

These sentences combined periodically may be put thus:

'Towards noon, the army, *which* had begun its march before day-break *to avoid* the heat, had nearly reached,' &c.

Again: "A Persian officer, high in the confidence of Cyrus, was seen. He was coming up at full speed. His horse was covered with foam. He called out to all who met him: 'The king's army is approaching in order of battle.'"

Combined into a single period this may become:

'A Persian officer, high in the confidence of Cyrus, was seen *coming* up at full speed, *his horse covered with foam, calling* out to all who met him, *that* the king's army *was* approaching in order of battle.'

And these two periods may be combined into one thus: 'Towards noon, *when* the army — had nearly reached —, a Persian officer,' &c.

Or thus: 'Towards noon, the army — had nearly reached —, *when* a Persian officer,' &c. (See *Examples of Parsing*, &c. p. 201.)

Exercise 77.

[Combine the co-ordinate sentences into periods, by changing co-ordinate into subordinate clauses, or by changing verbs into participles.]

805 1. "His admiral Tamos had been one of the lieutenants of Tissaphernes, but had abandoned his service for that of Cyrus. He (Tamos) was recalled from Miletus—he had been blockading it with twenty-five galleys—to Ephesus. There he was to be joined by the Laconian squadron." [Make this into a single period, of which the subject is 'His admiral Tamos.']

2. "The work appeared to proceed slowly: therefore Cyrus—he *affected* to be angry at the delay—directed his courtiers who stood around him—they *were* men of high rank—to hasten it." [Begin with 'As.']

3. "They instantly *threw* aside the more cumbersome part of their gorgeous dress, *leapt* into the mud with all their splendid ornaments, and shared the labour of the common soldiers. *And such was their alacrity* that the obstacle was speedily removed." [A single period.]

4. "They *had left* the scene of this occurrence, and not long afterwards traces appeared of a hostile body of cavalry. *This was supposed* to amount to about 2000: *it preceded* the march of the army, and laid the country waste before it." [A single period, beginning 'Not long after.']

5. "Cyrus *stated* the facts; they were admitted by the culprit; and Cyrus called upon Clearchus to deliver his opinion first." [Begin with 'After' and the participial substantive, and use 'Cyrus' only once.]

6. "Catiline *was astonished* by the thunder of (805) this speech, *and* had little to say for himself in answer to it."

7. "He was going on to give foul language, but the senate *interrupted* him by a general outcry, *and* called him traitor and parricide." [Begin 'But, as he was.']

8. "Whereupon *he became* furious and desperate, *declared* again, aloud, what he had said before to Cato, 'I am circumvented and driven headlong by my enemies; *you have raised a flame about me and I will quench that flame* by the common ruin,' and so rushed out of the assembly." [Make one period down to 'ruin,' and put the speech into the third person 'that he,' &c.]

EXAMPLES OF PARSING

AND

GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS.

["This method of Parsing by *groups* of words will be found both to lessen the dulness of the operation, and to lead to a far clearer view of the construction of sentences." Arnold's *Engl. Gram. for Classical Schools*, from which work, pp. 142, 143, the third, fourth, and fifth of the following Examples are taken.]

I.

"I have a good history of Rome."

Find the subject. [The personal pronoun 'I.']

——— predicate. [The verb 'have' in the indicative mood, present tense, active voice.]

I have *what*? [A good history of Rome.]

To what word and *how* is this notion joined? [It is joined *objectively* to 'have.']

What object is the notion 'history' in this sentence? [The accusative, being the thing had.]

What notion is joined *attributively* to 'a history'? [The adjective 'good.']

What other notion is joined *attributively* to 'a history'? [The genitive 'of Rome.']

II.

"She looked at him with tears in her eyes."

Find the subject. [The personal pronoun 'She.']

——— predicate. [The intransitive verb 'looked' in the indicative mood, preterite tense.]

What notion is joined *objectively* to the verb ? [A personal pronoun 'him' governed by a preposition 'at.']

What other notion is joined *objectively* ? [A notion denoting the manner, expressed by the substantive 'tears' governed by the preposition 'with.']

What notion is joined *attributively* to the substantive 'tears ?' [The substantive plural 'eyes' with the attributive 'her,' the possessive of 'she,' governed by the preposition 'in.']

III.

"We must now prepare for our visit to the General."

Find the subject. [We.]

——— predicate. [Must.]

Parse 'must.'

[A verb of mood ; in the present tense, indicative mood, first person plural.]

What notions are joined *objectively* to 'must ?' [An adverb of time 'now ;' and an infinitive mood 'prepare' with 'to,' omitted.]

What notions are joined *objectively* to 'prepare ?' [A substantive 'visit' governed by a preposition 'for.']

What notions are joined *attributively* to the substantive 'visit ?' [A gen. pronoun 'our,' and a substantive 'General' governed by the preposition 'to.']

IV.

"At our first arrival, after a long absence, we find a hundred orders to servants necessary ; a thousand things to be restored to their proper places ; and an endless variety of minutiae to be adjusted."

Find the subject. [We.]

——— predicate. [Find.]

To what peculiar class of verbs does 'find' belong ? ['Find' is a *copulative* verb, requiring a substantive or adjective to complete its predication.]

What word completes the predication of 'find ?' [The acc. adjective 'necessary.']

What do we 'find necessary ?' [A hundred orders.]

What notion is joined attributively to 'orders?' [The substantive 'servants' governed by the preposition 'to.']

What do we find besides? [A thousand things.]

What completes the predication of 'find' in this clause? ['To be restored:' the form of the infinitive passive, used as the passive participle implying 'duty, necessity,' &c.]

What notion is joined *objectively* to 'to be restored?' [A plural substantive 'places' governed by the preposition 'to,' and having a gen. pron. 'their,' and an adj. 'proper' joined to it *attributively*.]

V.

"All the opportunities I have of displaying heroism are of a private nature."

How many sentences have you here? [Two.]

Which is the principal sentence? [All the opportunities of displaying heroism are of a private nature.]

What is the other sentence? [I have.]

Is that a complete sentence? and, if not, what does it require? [It requires an object in the accusative.]

Supply it. [Which—'which I have.']

Find the subject. [Opportunities.]

—— predicate. [Of a private nature.]

—— copula. [The substantive verb 'are' in the third person plural of the present tense.]

What notions are joined attributively to the subject 'opportunities?' [An attributive adjective 'all,' the definite article 'the,' a participial substantive 'displaying' of the present active form; and a relative sentence 'which I have.']

To what class of sentences do relative sentences belong? [They are adjective accessory sentences.]

What notion is joined objectively to the participial substantive 'displaying?' The substantive 'heroism' in the *accusative* case.]

VI.

"Clearchus, on this occasion, had asked Cyrus, whether he thought that his brother would give him battle."

What is the principal sentence? ['Clearchus on this occasion had asked Cyrus' (something).]

Describe its parts. [The subject 'Clearchus,' a proper name, singular: the predicate 'had asked,' verb transitive, pluperfect tense, active voice: accusative object, the person asked, 'Cyrus:' accusative object, the thing asked (something), viz. 'whether,' &c. Adverbial object of time, 'on this occasion,' consisting of a substantive 'occasion' with attributive demonstrative pronoun 'this,' governed by the preposition 'on.']

The accusative object, the thing asked, is here expressed by —! [An accessory sentence, or *dependent question*, 'Whether he thought' (something).]

What would be the direct question? ['Do you think that my brother will give me battle?']

Describe the parts of the dependent question. ['Whether,' conjunction: 'he,' subject: 'thought' predicate, verb transitive, preterite, active voice.]

Why the preterite? [Because the question is dependent on a preterite, 'asked.']

What is the accusative object, or thing thought? ['That his brother would give him battle.']

What sort of sentence do you call this? [An accessory substantive sentence, forming the accusative object to the verb 'thought.']

How is this accessory sentence joined to the verb 'thought?' [By the conjunction 'that.']

What are its subject and predicate? ['His brother,' and 'would give.']

Parse 'would give.' ['Would' a verb auxiliary, past tense of 'will,' used because it follows a past tense 'thought.' 'Give,' an infinitive added objectively to 'would,' with 'to' omitted.]

In what way is 'him' added to 'give?' [Objectively, as dative.]

What other word is added, and how, to 'give?' ['Battle,' as accusative object.]

VII.

"A crow, who had flown away with a cheese from a dairy window, sat perched on a tree looking down at a great big frog in a pool underneath him."

What is the subject of the principal sentence? ['A crow.']

The predicate verb ! ['sate.'] Is this the entire predicate !
[It has a complement, 'perched.']

What is added attributively to the subject ! [The relative sentence 'who had flown away,' &c.]

What is the subject and what the predicate of the accessory sentence ! [Subject, the relative 'who;' predicate, 'had flown,' pluperf. of verb 'to fly.']

What notions are added objectively to the verb 'had flown !'
[An adverb of place, 'away;' a substantive, 'a cheese,' governed by the preposition 'with;' an object of place answering to the question *whence?* formed by 'a dairy-window' governed by the preposition 'from.']

Can you analyse this accessory sentence otherwise ! ['Had flown-away-with' may be considered as a compound phrase equivalent to 'had borne off' combined with the notion of flying: and to this, 'a cheese' is the object flown-away-with or borne-off.]

What kind of substantive is 'dairy-window ?' [A compound substantive, equivalent to 'window of a dairy.']

'Sate perched.' What notion is added objectively to this predicate ! [A notion answering to the question *where?* expressed by the substantive 'a tree' governed by the preposition 'on.']

'Looking down.' How is this participle added to the verb of the sentence ! [It forms another complement of the predicate: namely, 'sate looking down;' meaning, 'sate and (while it sate) was looking down.']

What notion is added to this participle objectively ! [The substantive 'a frog,' with double attributive adjective 'great big,' governed by the preposition 'at.']

'In a pool underneath him.' How are these notions added and to what ? 'In a pool,' attributively to 'a frog,' 'underneath him' attributively to 'a pool.']

VIII.

"Who ever heard of them (the English) eating an owl or a fox, madam," says Reynard, "or their sitting down and taking a crow to pick !"

How many sentences have you here ! [Two: the first with subject 'Who,' predicate 'heard;' the second, a parenthetical sentence, subject 'Reynard,' predicate 'says.']

'Heard of them eating.' Is this *strictly* correct? [No, it should be 'heard of their eating,' as it is in the following clause 'or (heard of) *their* sitting down.']

For 'them' substitute its antecedent, 'Who ever heard of the English eating?' Is this allowable, and why? [Yes, because 'the English' has no *genitive by inflexion*.] In the form, 'of their eating,' what is 'eating?' [The participial substantive.] 'Their?' [The subject-genitive.] In the form 'of them eating,' or 'of the English eating,' is 'eating' the participial substantive? [No, it is the participle.] Illustrate this construction by changing the verb. ['Who ever *saw* them,' or, 'saw the English, eating.']

Expand the participle. ['Who ever heard of *them*, that they eat.']

Expand the participial substantives. ['Who ever heard of *this* (namely), that they eat —, or of *this*, that they sit down and take, &c.']

Then in this sentence, the construction is varied: how? [In the first of the clauses, the writer substitutes 'them' for 'the English,' and retains the construction as it would have stood with 'the English:.' in the second, as the verb 'heard-of' is not repeated, he could not say 'them,' and used the participial substantive 'sitting down,' with the subject-genitive 'their.']

'To pick.' What does this infinitive represent? [An abbreviated sentence of intention: 'that they may pick it.']

IX.

"The next day towards noon, when the army, which had probably begun its march before day-break to avoid the heat, had nearly reached its halting-place for the night, near a village, named Cunaxa, between sixty and seventy miles from Babylon, a Persian officer, high in the confidence of Cyrus, was seen coming up at full speed, his horse covered with foam, calling out to all who met him, that the king's army was approaching in order of battle."

- What is the subject of the principal sentence? ['A Persian officer.']

The predicate ! [‘ Was seen coming up.’]

What words describing the time *when* are joined objectively to this predicate ! [‘ The next day towards noon.’]

Is the time *when* described by further circumstances !
[Yes : this happened ‘when the army had nearly reached its halting-place.’]

What sort of sentence is this ! [An accessory sentence of time.]

What is its subject ! [‘ The army.’]

Its verb ! [‘ Had reached.’]

What notions are added objectively to the verb ‘had reached !’ [Notions to describe in *what degree*, ‘nearly,’ and the object reached, ‘its halting-place.’]

What notion is added attributively to ‘its halting place !’
[‘ For the night,’ a substantive under the government of ‘for.’]

What kind of substantive is ‘halting-place !’ [A compound substantive.]

Describe its parts. [The substantive ‘place,’ and the participial substantive ‘halting.’]

‘Its halting-place for the night’ therefore means —
[‘ The place of its halting for the night.’]

How do you describe the words following ‘the place !’ [‘ Of its halting’ is an abbreviated sentence of place, representing, ‘where it should halt.’]

In which abbreviated sentence the word ‘its’ is — !
[Subject-genitive to ‘halting.’]

And the notion ‘for the night’ is — ! [Object of time
for how long ‘to halting.’]

What notion is added attributively to the term ‘its halting-place for the night !’ [‘ Near a village.’]

What words are added attributively to village ! [‘ Named Cunaxa,’ and ‘ between sixty and seventy miles from Babylon.’]

Describe the first of these two clauses. [It is abbreviated from the attributive relative sentence ‘which was named Cunaxa.’]

What kind of verb is ‘named !’ [A copulative verb.]

Describe the second ! [It is abbreviated from the relative sentence ‘which was (situated) between,’ &c.]

Returning to the subject of the first accessory sentence, what do we find added to the notion 'the army?' [The accessory relative sentence, 'which had probably,' &c.]

In this sentence the words 'to avoid the heat' are — ?

[An abbreviated final sentence, representing, 'that it might avoid the heat.']

Which final sentence expresses the — ? [Purpose for which the army 'had begun its march before day-break.']

Proceeding to the subject of the principal sentence, what term do we find attached to the notion 'a Persian officer?' ['High in the confidence of Cyrus.']

How do you describe this clause? [It is abbreviated from the relative sentence, 'who was (or, who stood) high in the confidence of Cyrus.']

Is the verb 'seen' the entire predicate of the subject, 'a Persian officer?' [No: the entire predicate is, 'was seen coming up.']

These words therefore denote two things — what? [He 'was seen,' and 'he was coming up.']

'At full speed' belongs to what, and how? [To 'coming up,' as object of manner.]

Is any other object of manner annexed adverbially to 'coming up?' [Yes: 'his horse covered with foam.']

How is the term 'his horse' governed? [Either by the participle 'having' understood, or by the preposition 'with' understood.]

Then how do you describe this clause? [It is an abbreviated sentence of manner, representing, 'in such sort that his horse was covered with foam.']

What other clause is annexed adverbially to 'coming up?' ['Calling out,' &c.]

This clause describes — ? [How he was 'coming up:' viz. he was 'coming up calling out.']

In what other way may it be described? ['He was coming up, and (while coming up) was calling out.']

What notions are added objectively to this participle 'calling out?' [A dative notion and an accusative.]

Describe the dative notion. ['To all,' governed by the verb of saying, to 'call out.']

What notion is added to this object ! [The attributive, 'who met him,' which is an accessory relative sentence.]

Describe the accusative notion. [The thing called out, namely, 'The king's army is approaching in order of battle.']

Which accusative is — what kind of sentence ? [An accessory substantive sentence.]

Why is its verb changed from the present (is approaching) to the past ('was approaching') ? [Because the verb on which the reported speech depends is in the past tense, 'was seen — calling out,' i. e. 'called out.']

THE COMPANION,

CONTAINING

A SUMMARY OF THE ACCIDENCE.

1. *Rules for forming the Plural Number.*

THE *plural* of a substantive is generally formed by adding *s* to the *singular*, that is to the substantive itself.

But to this rule there are some exceptions.

(a) Substantives that end in *ch*, *sh*, *s*, *x*, or *o* after a consonant, add *es* to the singular.

(b) Many that end in *f*, and *fe*, form their plural in *ves*.

(c) Those that end in *y* after a consonant, form their plural in *ies*.

COUNTER-EXCEPTIONS.

(a) Of those in *o* after a consonant, *canto*, *tyro*, *quarto*, and occasionally some others, are generally written *cantos*, &c. in the plural.

(b) When *ck* is pronounced *hard*, like *k*, *s* only is added.

(c) Words that end in

oof,

ief (except *thief*, *thieves*),

ff (except *staff*, *staves*; *leaf*, *leaves*),

rf,

together with *strife*, *life*,

} do not change
f into v.

2. *Irregular Comparatives.*

a) The following adjectives have peculiar forms for their comparatives and superlatives:

Good	better	best	Much	more	most
Bad	worse	worst	Many	more	most
Little	less	least			

ence to other objects: 'He received me in the *kindest possible* manner.' 'The *greatest imaginable* folly.' Here the reference is to all the *possible* degrees of kindness; to every *imaginable* species of folly.

(f) In most languages we find a few comparatives and superlatives from words which already denote the *highest degree* of a quality. One would not wish to get rid of such forms, when they have once obtained a firm footing, and may be considered as *naturalized* in the language.

(g) There seems to be authority for the following forms:—

Extremest. "The *extremest* of evils." Bacon. "The *extremest* verge." Shakespeare. "His *extremest* state." Spenser. Also Dryden and Addison. [So the Greek *ἰσχυρότατος*.]

Chiefest. "Chiefest of the herdmen." Bib. "*Chiefest* courtier." Shak. "First and *chiefest*." Milt.

Perfect. "Usage has given to it (*more perfect*) a sanction which we dare hardly controvert." Crombie. "Having *more perfect* knowledge of that way." Acts xxiv. 22.

3. a) Declension of Pronouns.

	Nom.	Genitive.	Accus.
Pers. 1 { Sing. Plur.	<i>I</i> <i>we</i>	<i>my</i> or <i>mine</i> <i>our</i> or <i>ours</i>	<i>me</i> <i>us</i> .
Pers. 2 { Sing. Plur.	<i>thou</i> { <i>ye</i> <i>you</i> }	<i>thy</i> or <i>thine</i> <i>your</i> or <i>yours</i>	<i>thee</i> <i>you</i> .
Pers. 3. { Sing. { mas. fem. neut. Plur.	<i>he</i> <i>she</i> <i>it</i> <i>they</i>	<i>his</i> <i>her</i> or <i>hers</i> <i>its</i> <i>their</i> or <i>theirs</i>	<i>him</i> <i>her</i> <i>it</i> <i>them</i> .
Relative and Interrogative }	<i>who</i> <i>which</i>	<i>whose</i> { <i>of which</i> <i>or whose</i> }	<i>whom</i> <i>which</i> .

Demonstrative { *this*, plural *these*.
 that, plural *those*.

b) *Reflexive* :

Sing.	Plur.
1. <i>myself</i>	<i>ourselves</i> .
2. <i>thyself</i>	<i>yourselves</i> .
3. { <i>himself</i> <i>herself</i> <i>itself</i> }	<i>themselves</i> .

The terminations are added to the *genitives* of the two first persons, to the *accusatives* of the third person.

4. *Personal Forms of a Verb.*

		<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
		<i>I</i>	<i>thou</i>	<i>he, she, or it</i>	<i>we,</i>	<i>ye or you,</i>	<i>they</i>
<i>Present.</i>	{	<i>write</i>	<i>writest</i>	<i>writes</i>	<i>write</i>		
		<i>delay</i>	<i>delayest</i>	<i>delays</i>	<i>delay</i>		
		<i>catch</i>	<i>catchest</i>	<i>catches</i>	<i>catch</i>		
		<i>take</i>	<i>takest</i>	<i>takes</i>	<i>take</i>		
		<i>refer</i>	<i>referrest</i>	<i>refers</i>	<i>refer</i>		
<i>Preterite.</i>	{	<i>wrote</i>	<i>wrotest</i>	<i>wrote</i>	<i>wrote</i>		
		<i>delayed</i>	<i>delayedst</i>	<i>delayed</i>	<i>delayed</i>		
		<i>caught</i>	<i>caughtest</i>	<i>caught</i>	<i>caught</i>		
		<i>took</i>	<i>tookest</i>	<i>took</i>	<i>took</i>		
		<i>referred</i>	<i>referredst</i>	<i>referred</i>	<i>referred</i>		

5. a) *Auxiliary Verbs am, have, do.*

<i>Participles.</i>		
<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
<i>To be</i>	<i>being</i>	<i>been.</i>
<i>To have</i>	<i>having</i>	<i>had.</i>
<i>To do</i>	<i>doing</i>	<i>done.</i>

		<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
		<i>I</i>	<i>thou</i>	<i>he, she, or it</i>	<i>we,</i>	<i>{ ye or you, }</i>	<i>they</i>
Preterite. Present.	{	<i>am</i> <i>have</i> <i>do</i>	<i>art</i> <i>hast</i> <i>dost</i>	<i>is</i> <i>has</i> <i>does, doth</i>	<i>are</i> <i>have</i> <i>do</i>		
	{	<i>was</i> <i>had</i> <i>did</i>	<i>wast</i> <i>hadst</i> <i>didst</i>	<i>was</i> <i>had</i> <i>did</i>	<i>were</i> <i>had</i> <i>did</i>		

b) Conditional Forms of *To be*.

		<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
Pres.	<i>be</i>	<i>beest</i>	<i>be</i>		<i>be</i>		
Pret.	<i>were</i>	<i>wert</i>	<i>were</i>		<i>were.</i>		

6. *Verbs of Mood.*

	<i>I</i>	<i>thou</i>	<i>he, she, or it.</i>	<i>we, ye or you, they</i>
Present	<i>may</i>	<i>mayest</i>	<i>may</i>	<i>may</i>
Preterite	<i>might</i>	<i>mightest</i>	<i>might</i>	<i>might</i>
Present	<i>can</i>	<i>canst</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>can</i>
Preterite	<i>could</i>	<i>couldst</i>	<i>could</i>	<i>could</i>
Present	<i>shall</i>	<i>shalt</i>	<i>shall</i>	<i>shall</i>
Preterite	<i>should</i>	<i>shouldst</i>	<i>should</i>	<i>should</i>
Present	<i>will</i>	<i>wilt</i>	<i>will</i>	<i>will</i>
Preterite	<i>would</i>	<i>wouldst</i>	<i>would</i>	<i>would</i>
Present	<i>ought</i>	<i>oughtest</i>	<i>ought</i>	<i>ought</i>
Present	<i>must</i>	<i>must</i>	<i>must</i>	<i>must</i>

(a) These verbs all agree in not taking *s* as the termination of the third person singular; and with the exception of *ought*, they are followed by the infinitive without *to*.

(b) The verb *need* is also used without *s* in the third person singular, when followed by the infinitive; and *to* is omitted. Our common grammars do not sanction this usage, but I am persuaded it is correct. It is probable, that the rejection of the *s* by the verbs of mood, arises from the close connexion between such verbs and the following infinitive, to which the *s* would form a disagreeable impediment. Thus in the formation of Greek words, wherever *s* would stand between two consonants, it was rejected.

"For the age of these books of Clement and Hermas, one *need* only enquire for the time of Clement's death."—Wall on Infant Baptism, i. 58. "How little weight *need* be attached to his opinion," &c.—Niebuhr, ii. 408 (Hare and Thirlwall's Translation). "Tracing the remnant of the Apostolical tradition *need* not prove such a very overwhelming task."—Keble, Apost. Trad. p. 41.

(c) For the same reason *dare* often drops the *s*, at least in conversation; and I find it so used by Middleton: "Our Editor knows full well, that he has no right to the style of Doctor; and whenever he speaks or acts in his own person, *dare* not so much as assume it himself."—Miscell. p. 358.

7. Table of English Verb.

Indicative Mood.

	ACTIVE VOICE.	PASSIVE VOICE.
Present.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Defend} \\ \textit{Am defending} \\ \textit{Do defend} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{Am defended.} \end{array} \right\}$
Imperfect.	$\textit{Was defending}$	$\textit{(None.)}$
Perfect } Definite }	$\textit{Have defended}$	$\textit{Have been defended.}$
Preterite } (or Perf.) }	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Defended} \\ \textit{Did defend} \end{array} \right\}$	$\textit{Was defended.}$
Pluperfect.	$\textit{Had defended}$	$\textit{Had been defended.}$
Future.	$\textit{Shall or will defend}$	$\textit{Shall or will be defended.}$
Future } Perfect. }	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Shall or will have} \\ \textit{defended} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Shall or will have been} \\ \textit{defended.} \end{array} \right\}$

Imperative Mood.

S.	P.	S.	P.
<i>Defend (thou).</i>	<i>Defend (ye).</i>	<i>Be thou defended.</i>	<i>Be ye defended.</i>

Forms that answer (in dependent sentences) to the tenses of the Latin subjunctive.

Present.	<i>May (should) defend . . . May (should) be defended.</i>
Imperfect	<i>{ Might, should, or } { Might, should, or would</i> <i>would defend . . } <i>be defended.</i></i>
Perfect.	<i>{ May (should) have } { May (should) have been</i> <i>defended . . . } <i>defended.</i></i>
Pluperfect.	<i>{ Might, should, or } { Might, should, or would</i> <i>would have defended } <i>have been defended.</i></i>

Infinitive Mood.

Present.	<i>To defend To be defended.</i>
Perfect.	<i>To have defended . . . To have been defended.</i>
Future.	<i>{ To be going, or about } { To be going, or about to</i> <i>to defend } <i>be defended.</i></i>

Participles.

Present.	<i>Defending { Defended (past. part.).</i> <i>Being defended.</i>
Perfect.	<i>Having defended . . . Having been defended.</i>
Future.	<i>{ Going to defend . . { Going to be defended.</i> <i>About to defend . . } <i>About to be defended.</i></i>

NOTES ON THE TABLE.

(a) The present '*do defend*,' and the perfect '*did defend*,' are used in *questions, denials, and strong affirmations*.

(b) The *perfect definite* (or *present perfect*) is used of actions that have taken place in a space of time¹ not yet expired.

(c) The past participle is not passive in meaning, unless the verb is transitive.—The past participle of an intransitive verb belongs to the active voice.

(d) There is no trusting the mere look of a form, as the following tables will show :

¹ The space of time may be of any length: a week, a year, a century.

- 1 He . . . is coming *present active.*
 2 The house . is building *present passive.*
 3 This . . . is asking (too much) 'is' with the *participial substantive.*
 1 He is come *preterite active.*
 2 The house . is built *preterite passive.*
 3 He is loved (by all) . . *present passive.*

(e) There is also a *progressive form*, *I am defending*, which may be conjugated throughout. *I was defending* (imperf.); *I have been defending*; *I had been defending*; *I shall be defending*; *I shall have been defending*, &c. *I had been defending* is the pluperfect of the *progressive form*.

(f) In the verbs that can take a present passive of the form '*is building*,' the imperfect is '*was building*.' These verbs, which can only be so used in the third person, are the only verbs that have an imperfect of the passive voice.

[(g) The passive infinitive is often used as a *participle of necessity*. "There is much to be done." "We find a thousand things to be restored to their proper places; and an endless variety of minutiae to be adjusted."]

8. List of Remarkable Verbs ¹.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Abide (<i>d</i>)	Abode	Abode
Arise (<i>c</i>)	Arose	Arisen
Awake (<i>e</i>)	Awoke †	Awaked
Bake (<i>e</i>)	Baked	Baken †
Bear, to bring forth (<i>c</i>)	Bore, or Bare	Born
Bear, to carry (<i>c</i>)	Bore, or Bare	Borne
Beat (<i>c</i>)	Beat	Beaten
Begin (<i>d</i>)	Began	Begun
Become (<i>d</i>)	Became	Become
Behold (<i>c. d</i>)	Beheld	Beheld, or Beholden
Bend (<i>g</i>)	Bent †	Bent †
Bereave (<i>i</i>)	Bereft †	Bereft †

¹ The letters refer to the following *Notes*. Where † is added, the verb also takes the form in *ed*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Perfect Participles.</i>
Beseech (<i>k</i>)	Besought	Besought
Bid (<i>c</i>)	Bade, or Bid	Bidden
Bind (<i>d</i>)	Bound	Bound
Bite (<i>c. d</i>)	Bit	Bitten, Bit
Bleed (<i>d</i>)	Bled	Bled
Blow (<i>c</i>)	Blew	Blown
Break (<i>c</i>)	Broke, or Brake	Broken
Breed (<i>d</i>)	Bred	Bred
Bring (<i>k</i>)	Brought	Brought
Build (<i>g</i>)	Built †	Built †
Burst (<i>f</i>)	Burst	Burst
Buy (<i>k</i>)	Bought	Bought
Can (<i>l</i>)	Could	
Cast (<i>f</i>)	Cast	Cast
Catch (<i>k</i>)	Caught †	Caught †
Chide (<i>c</i>)	Chid	Chidden
Choose (<i>c</i>)	Chose	Chosen
Cleave, to stick or adhere (<i>e</i>)	Clave †	Cleaved
Cleave, to split (<i>c. i</i>)	Clove, or Clave, or Cleft	Cloven, or Cleft
Cling (<i>d</i>)	Clung	Clung
Climb (<i>e</i>)	Clomb †	Climbed
Clothe (<i>d</i>)	Clad †	Clad †
Come (<i>d</i>)	Came	Come
Cost (<i>f</i>)	Cost	Cost
Crow (<i>e</i>)	Crew †	Crowed
Creep (<i>i</i>)	Crept	Crept
Cut (<i>f</i>)	Cut	Cut
Dare, to venture	Durst †	Dared
Dare, to challenge, is regular		
Deal (<i>i</i>)	Dealt †	Dealt †
Dig (<i>d. e</i>)	Dug †	Dug †
Do (<i>l. e</i>)	Did	Done
Draw (<i>c</i>)	Drew	Drawn
Dream (<i>i</i>)	Dreamt	Dreamt
Drive (<i>c</i>)	Drove	Driven

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Drink (<i>d</i>)	Drank	Drunk
Dwell (<i>h</i>)	Dwelt †	Dwelt †
Eat (<i>c</i>)	Ate	Eaten
Fall (<i>c</i>)	Fell	Fallen
Feed (<i>d</i>)	Fed	Fed
Feel (<i>i</i>)	Felt	Felt
Fight (<i>d</i>)	Fought	Fought
Find (<i>d</i>)	Found	Found
Flee (<i>l</i>)	Fled	Fled
Flie (<i>c</i>)	Flew	Flown
Fling (<i>d</i>)	Flung	Flung
Forget (<i>c</i>)	Forgot	Forgotten
Forgo (<i>c</i>)		Forgone
Forsake (<i>c</i>)	Forsook	Forsaken
Freeze (<i>c</i>)	Froze	Frozen
Get (<i>c. d</i>)	Gat, or Got	Gotten, or Got
Gild (<i>g</i>)	Gilt †	Gilt †
Gird (<i>g</i>)	Girt †	Girt †
Give (<i>c</i>)	Gave	Given
Go (<i>c</i>)	Went	Gone
Grave (<i>e</i>)	Graved	Graven †
Grind (<i>d</i>)	Ground	Ground
Grow (<i>c</i>)	Grew	Grown
Have (<i>h</i>)	Had	Had
Hang (<i>d. e</i>)	Hung †	Hung †
Hear (<i>l</i>)	Heard	Heard
Heave (<i>c. e</i>)	Hove †	Hoven †
Help (<i>e</i>)	Helped	Holpen †
Hew (<i>e</i>)	Hewed	Hewn †
Hide (<i>c. d</i>)	Hid	Hidden, or Hid
Hit (<i>f</i>)	Hit	Hit
Hold (<i>c. d</i>)	Held	Holden, or Held
Hurt (<i>f</i>)	Hurt	Hurt
Keep (<i>i</i>)	Kept	Kept
Kneel (<i>i</i>)	Knelt	Knelt
Knit (<i>f</i>)	Knit, or Knitted	Knit, or Knitted
Know (<i>c</i>)	Knew	Known

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Lade (<i>e</i>)	Laded	Laden
Lay (<i>l</i>)	Laid	Laid
Lead (<i>d</i>)	Led	Led
Leave (<i>i</i>)	Left	Left
Lend (<i>g</i>)	Lent	Lent
Let (<i>f</i>)	Let	Let
Lie, to lie down (<i>c</i>)	Lay	Lain
Lift (<i>f</i>)	Lifted, or Lift	Lifted, or Lift
Light (<i>d. e</i>)	Lighted, or Lit	Lighted, or Lit
Load (<i>e</i>)	Loaded	Loaden, or Loaded
Lose (<i>i</i>)	Lost	Lost
Make (<i>l</i>)	Made	Made
May (<i>k</i>)	Might	
Mean (<i>i</i>)	Meant	Meant
Meet (<i>d</i>)	Met	Met
Mow (<i>e</i>)	Mowed	Mown
Pay (<i>l</i>)	Paid	Paid
Put (<i>f</i>)	Put	Put
Quit (<i>f</i>)	Quit, or Quitted	Quit
Read (<i>d</i>)	Read	Read
Rend (<i>g</i>)	Rent	Rent
Ride (<i>c. d</i>)	Rode, or Rid	Rid, or Ridden
Rid (<i>f</i>)	Rid	Rid
Ring (<i>d</i>)	Rang, or Rung	Rung
Rise (<i>c</i>)	Rose	Risen
Rive (<i>e</i>)	Rived	Riven
Run (<i>d</i>)	Ran	Run
Saw (<i>e</i>)	Sawed	Sawn †
Say (<i>l</i>)	Said	Said
See (<i>c</i>)	Saw	Seen
Seek (<i>k</i>)	Sought	Sought
Seethe (<i>c. e</i>)	Seethed, or Sod	Sodden
Sell (<i>l</i>)	Sold	Sold
Send (<i>g</i>)	Sent	Sent
Set (<i>f</i>)	Set	Set

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Shake (<i>c</i>)	Shook	Shaken
Shall (<i>l</i>)	Should	
Shape (<i>e</i>)	Shaped	Shapen †
Shave (<i>e</i>)	Shaved	Shaven †
Shear (<i>c</i>)	Shore	Shorn
Shed (<i>f</i>)	Shed	Shed
Shine (<i>d</i>)	Shone †	Shone †
Shew, or Show (<i>e</i>)	Shewed, or Showed	Shewn, or Shown
Shoe (<i>l</i>)	Shod	Shod
Shoot (<i>d</i>)	Shot	Shot
Shrink (<i>d</i>)	Shrank, or Shrunk	Shrunk
Shred (<i>f</i>)	Shred	Shred
Shut (<i>f</i>)	Shut	Shut
Sing (<i>d</i>)	Sang, or Sung	Sung
Sink (<i>d</i>)	Sank, or Sunk	Sunk
Sit (<i>c. d</i>)	Sat	Sitten (<i>obs.</i>), Sat
Slay (<i>c</i>)	Slew	Slain
Sleep (<i>i</i>)	Slept	Slept
Slide (<i>c</i>)	Slid	Slidden
Sling (<i>d</i>)	Slang, or Slung	Slung
Slink (<i>d</i>)	Slank, or Slunk	Slunk
Slit (<i>f</i>)	Slit	Slit
Smite (<i>c</i>)	Smote	Smitten
Sow (<i>e</i>)	Sowed	Sown †
Speak (<i>c</i>)	Spoke, or Spake	Spoken
Speed (<i>d</i>)	Sped	Sped
Spend (<i>g</i>)	Spent	Spent
Spell (<i>h</i>)	Spelt	Spelt
Spill (<i>h</i>)	Spilt †	Spilt †
Spin (<i>d</i>)	Spun, or Span	Spun
Spit (<i>c. f</i>)	Spat, or Spit	Spitten, or Spit
Split (<i>f</i>)	Split	Split
Spread (<i>f</i>)	Spread	Spread
Spring (<i>d</i>)	Sprang, or Sprung	Sprung

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Præterite.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Stand (<i>d</i>)	Stood	Stood
Steal (<i>c</i>)	Stole	Stolen
Stick (<i>d</i>)	Stuck	Stuck
Sting (<i>d</i>)	Stung	Stung
Stink (<i>d</i>)	Stank, or Stunk	Stunk
Stride (<i>c</i>)	Strode, or Strid	Stridden
Strike (<i>c. d</i>)	Struck	Struck, or Stricken
String (<i>d</i>)	Strung	Strung
Strive (<i>c</i>)	Strove	Striven
Strew, or Strow (<i>e</i>)	Strewed, or Strowed	} Strown
Swear (<i>c</i>)	Swore, or Sware	
Sweat (<i>f</i>)	Sweat	Sweat
Sweep (<i>i</i>)	Swept	Swept
Swell (<i>e</i>)	Swelled	Swelled, or Swollen
Swim (<i>d</i>)	Swam, or Swum	Swum
Swing (<i>d</i>)	Swang	Swung
Take (<i>c</i>)	Took	Taken
Teach (<i>k</i>)	Taught	Taught
Tear (<i>c</i>)	Tore, or Tare	Torn
Tell (<i>l</i>)	Told	Told
Think (<i>k</i>)	Thought	Thought
Thrive (<i>c</i>)	Throve	Thriven
Throw (<i>c</i>)	Threw	Thrown
Thrust (<i>f</i>)	Thrust	Thrust
Tread (<i>c</i>)	Trod	Trodden
Wax (<i>e</i>)	Waxed	Waxen †
Wash (<i>e</i>)	Washed	Washed and Washen
Wear (<i>c</i>)	Wore	Worn
Weave (<i>c</i>)	Wove	Woven
Weep (<i>i</i>)	Wept	Wept
Will (<i>l</i>)	Would	
Win (<i>d</i>)	Won	Won
Wind (<i>d</i>)	Wound †	Wound

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Preterite.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Work (<i>k</i>)	Wrought †	Wrought †
Wring (<i>d</i>)	Wrung †	Wrung
Write (<i>c</i>)	Wrote	Written
Writhe (<i>e</i>)	Writhed	Writhen.

NOTES ON THE LIST.

(a) It has been usual to call these verbs *regular* which form their preterites in *d* or *ed*; and to throw all the others together in one list of *irregular* verbs. The former are more properly called verbs of the *modern form of conjugation*. (For this, some grammarians use the term *weak form*.)

(b) In pronunciation this *d* often becomes *t*: thus *heaped*, *fished*, *kissed*, *fixed* are pronounced *heapt*, *fisht*, *kist*, *fiht*. "Our forefathers wrote these words as they pronounced them, and it is greatly to be wished (*wisht*) that we could be persuaded to return to their more sensible practice." Eng. Gr. 219, c.

(c) Verbs which form the preterite by vowel change and the past participle with *a* or *en*, with or without vowel-change, are rightly described as verbs of the *ancient form of conjugation*. (Some grammarians call it the *strong form*.)

Such are, for instance :

<i>Arise</i>	<i>Arose</i>	<i>Arisen</i>
<i>Bear</i>	<i>Bore, Bore</i>	<i>Born</i>
<i>Bite</i>	<i>Bit</i>	<i>Bitten</i>
<i>Hide</i>	<i>Hid</i>	<i>Hidden</i>
<i>Blow</i>	<i>Blew</i>	<i>Blown</i>
<i>See</i>	<i>Saw</i>	<i>Seen</i>
<i>Speak</i>	<i>Spoke, Spake</i>	<i>Spoken</i>

(d) *Irregular* verbs of the ancient form are those which form the preterite by vowel change, but do not take the *en* of the participle.

Such are

<i>Begin</i>	<i>Began</i>	<i>Begun</i>
<i>Bind</i>	<i>Bound</i>	<i>Bound</i>
<i>Dig</i>	<i>Dug</i>	<i>Dug</i>
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Sung, Sang</i>	<i>Sung</i>

<i>Come</i>	<i>Came</i>	<i>Come</i>
<i>Light</i>	<i>Lit</i>	<i>Lit</i>
<i>Clothe</i>	<i>Clad</i>	<i>Clad</i>
<i>Stand</i>	<i>Stood</i>	<i>Stood</i>
<i>Bleed</i>	<i>Bled</i>	<i>Bled</i>
<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Shot</i>	<i>Shot</i>

(e) Some belong partly to the ancient, partly to the modern form : thus,

<i>Awake</i>	<i>Awoke and Awaked</i>	<i>Awaked</i>
<i>Bake</i>	<i>Baked</i>	<i>Baken and Baked</i>

(f) In the preceding List many ending in *t* or *d* have preterite and participle like the present : i. e. they drop the *ed*, *d* or *t* of the modern form. Such are *spread*, *cut*, *burst*, *cast*. (Under this head may be included some of the verbs under (d), as *bleed*, *bled*, &c. ; but, for convenience, we place among irregular verbs of the ancient form all those in which the preterite and participle now differ from the present only by vowel change.)

(g) Several in *ld*, *nd*, *rd*, merely change *d* into *t*. Such are *bend*, *bent* ; *build*, *built* ; *good*, *girt*.

(h) Some in *ll*, take *t* ; as *dwel*, *dwelt* ; *spill*, *spilt*.

(i) Many in *cep*, *eal*, *cel*, *eam*, can also take *t* and shorten the vowel sound. Thus, *keep*, *kept* ; *deal*, *dealt* (=delt) ; *feel*, *felt* ; *dream*, *dreamt* (=dremt) ; *mean*, *meant* (=ment) ; *lean*, *leant* (=lent). In *learn*, *learnt*, the *ea* is already short.

To the same class belong *leave*, *cleave*, *bereave*, *lose* ; *left*, *cleft*, *bereft*, *lost* (with change also of the consonant from 'sonant' to 'surd').

(k) *Beseech*, *besought* ; *seek*, *sought* ; *teach*, *taught* ; *catch*, *caught* ; *bring*, *brought* ; *think*, *thought* ; *work*, *wrought* ; *buy*, *bought* ; *may*, *might*, have the ending *t*, with a peculiar change of the preceding syllable.

(l) In the following the ending is *d*, with change of vowel sound : *do*, *did*, but its participle regular of ancient form, *done* ; *flee*, *fled* ; *hear*, *heard* (short vowel sound) ; *shoe*, *shod* ; *sell*, *sold* ; *tell*, *told* ; *will*, *would* ; *shall*, *should* : also, more irregular, *have*, *had* ; *can*, *could* ; *make*, *made*. In *say*, *said*, there is a change of sound ; in *lay*, *laid* ; *pay*, *paid*, only a change of spelling.

THE END.

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